College & Research Libraries

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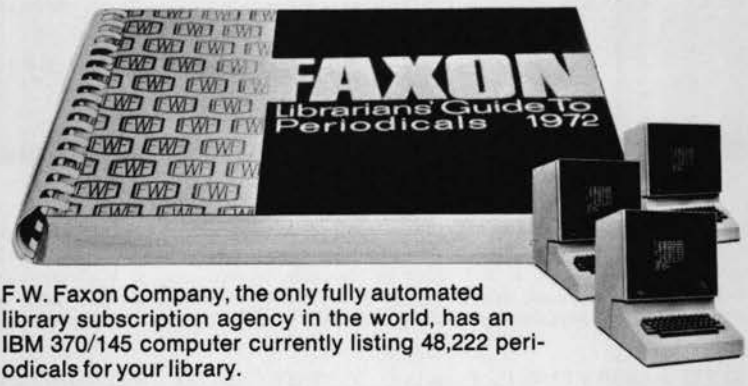

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College & Research Libraries

Manuscripts of articles and copies of books submitted for review should be addressed to Richard M. Dougherty, editor, **College & Research Libraries,** University Librarian, University of California, Berkeley, California 94720. All articles submitted must be accompanied by an abstract of from 75 to 100 words in length. Material for the News issues should be sent to Michael Herbison, University of Colorado, Colorado Springs Center, Colorado Springs, Colorado 80903.

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"Will the Resources Head Wag the Imperative Tail?"

The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education has just published another report entitled *The More Effective Use of Resources: An Imperative for Higher Education.* The study has serious implications for libraries because its recommendations directly affect patterns and level of use, and the service capabilities of libraries. The thrust of the report is that ". . . about $10 billion (in 1970–71 dollars) can be taken away from the prospective expenditures that would be made on higher education in 1980–81 if the trends of the 1960s were to be followed."

That's right, we are talking about *reductions* in funding. While the report repeatedly states that budgets for new books and periodicals should not be cut, it is clear that other major portions of library expenditures are not so favored. The Commission supports its $10 billion figure with such an alarmingly detailed array of data and with such closely-reasoned projections that one is led to the ineluctable conclusion that, willy-nilly, the soaring sixties are going to be followed by the stringent seventies, which will be followed by the stagnant eighties. In short, the Commission has carefully analyzed costs and growth in American higher education and has concluded that they are too high and we have had enough.

What does this mean for you and me? Assuming that some, even if not all, of the Commission's recommendations are translated into reality, we can look forward to the following:

(1) A drastic halt in the creation of new Ph.D. programs, and a reduction in the number of Ph.D. programs already in existence. In the humanities and social sciences—the heaviest users of library materials at the Ph.D. level—we will have to change our acquisitions policies and even many procedures. Large-scale buying in new fields will almost certainly not occur as it has in the past. Habits of mind acquired in the sixties will have to be altered to conform to the new conditions of scholarly expansion.

(2) A reduction in the number of students may be imminent. In 1960 we had some three million students enrolled; in 1970 we had doubled that figure. But in 1980 we can look forward to less than ten million full-time students. And beyond 1980, the mathematics of a zero-population growth point inexorably to a decline in the number of college-age students. Further, the Commission recommends the three-year B.A. degree, credit by examinations, the year-round school, and a variety of other methods for achieving more intensive use of existing resources. Before any of these recommendations are realized in our own school, we had better sit down with our presidents and deans and translate each into library costs saved *and incurred.* If course credit by examination is to become widespread, it is obvious that patterns of library use will change—and probably for the better. And with the decline in the 18–22 year-old college student, there might be an increase in the number of older students enrolled. Every reference librarian knows there is a difference between the student and the "mature" student. But do their administrators?

(3) A leveling off of salaries. In the 1960s, faculty salaries not only rose with the general cost of living, but increased by an additional three percent annually.

In the 1970s, the Commission estimates, faculty salaries will better the cost of living rate only by one or two percent, whereas wages generally will rise above the cost of living rate by two to three percent. The tug of war between academics and the rest of the country's wage earners will not be in favor of the academics for quite some time. Are you ready for that? And if a deteriorating job market combines with financial stringency to produce unfavorable employment conditions, we can be fairly certain that large-scale unionization will result. Indeed the trend in this direction as of 1972 is obvious. Have you and your friendly local administrator gotten together to work out successful collective bargaining relationships? After all those battles over academic status, is it time now—is there time now—to think about hitching the library wagon to a different star? There is the good old red dwarf of the AAUP and the supernova of the AFT; dare we look at the quasar in the other corner or the suspected but nearly unimaginable quark in still another direction?

(4) An increase in the number and variety of consortia between academic institutions. For the library, such cooperative efforts will certainly have to result in something more than verbiage, more even than jazzed-up interlibrary loaning. Why do we have to wait for the situation to overtake us before we effectively knuckle down to sharing resources and (probably more important) eliminating duplication of processing effort? As college administrators better perceive the realities of the budget, they are going to chip away further at the library's infrastructure—better known in many places as the Technical Services Division. And really now: why should anyone be asked to accept as *necessary* a five to ten dollar unit cost for processing a book? It is not only outrageously high, it is outrageously silly; and although you and I have learned to live with (even accept) exorbitant processing costs, it does not follow that our presidents have—not to mention other assorted taxpayers such as truck drivers, faculty members, bartenders, or legislators.

The conclusion seems inescapable: we must grope with, if not cope with, changes in our acquisitions policies, in our student population, in our conditions of employment, and in our relations with libraries in sister institutions. The world of learning is not going to contract, to be sure, but we are going to have to learn better how to gear our acquisitions more precisely to the teaching and research needs on campus. We are going to have to satisfy students who are older, who are no longer academic virgins, who may have more questing minds—and not just about academic subjects, but about academic management. We may find ourselves making more but enjoying it less, and who can say that our thinking about our labor relations will continue to bifurcate into simplistic professionalism vs. unionism? Is it not possible, finally, to think of interlibrary cooperation in more than cataclysmic/bogus terms? We may find that we have stretched the budgets for books too thinly in relation to the budgets for processing them.

As the proverbial wag put it, the dinosaur disappeared because his head got too far away from his tail.

W. H. Webb

CARLOS A. CUADRA and RUTH J. PATRICK

Survey of Academic Library Consortia in the U.S.

In 1970 USOE initiated a nationwide study of academic library consortia. The purpose of the study, carried out by SDC, was to develop a fund of descriptive and prescriptive information about library consortium activities. The study involved a questionnaire survey to identify and describe all known consortia, and a case-study analysis of fifteen selected consortia. This paper discusses the survey methodology, the findings, and two major products: a Directory of Academic Library Consortia, *and* Guidelines for the Development of Academic Library Consortia. *The latter presents a twenty-four step process that may serve as a useful model for library consortium development.*

Introduction

Interlibrary cooperation is not a new phenomenon. Awareness of the vast and growing world literature, in relation to the holdings and resources of any single library, has fostered among librarians an acute appreciation of the interdependence of most of the nation's libraries and of the requirement for some level of cooperation.

In recent years there has been a strong movement toward formal arrangements for sharing library resources. Although these arrangements can be described in a variety of ways, the resulting organizations are usually referred to as consortia or networks. In contrast to the simple and largely informal arrangements for interlibrary loan, consortium or network arrangements require that members share system planning and development resources, as well as operating responsibilities and functions.

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Although acceptance and implementation of library consortia have increased, little guidance has been available to libraries interested in exploring the idea—no design data, no standards, and no models upon which institutions might base better library service through joint efforts. In fact, there has been a dearth of good descriptive data on library consortia. To help remedy this situation, the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) contracted with System Development Corporation (SDC) to undertake a study of academic library consortia. A major purpose of this project was to analyze the usefulness and effectiveness of various patterns of library cooperation and to devise practical guidelines for improving the planning, development, and operation of academic library consortia.

Survey Procedures

Project methodology was designed to accomplish two major tasks:

1. Plan and carry out a broad-scale survey to identify and describe all consortia in American higher education that include libraries as a

significant component.
2. Conduct in-depth analysis of selected library consortia to discover salient characteristics, similarities and differences, achievements and problems—and the ways in which these are interrelated.

Each of these tasks was to lead to a major product. The first was a Directory identifying all known library consortia in higher education and listing their components (participating libraries) and characteristics. The second was a comprehensive Guidelines document presenting a basic model for planning, developing, operating, and evaluating library consortia in higher education. This document was to be based on the findings from both of the major project tasks.

Identification of Existing Academic Library Consortia

To identify the universe of academic library consortia, a questionnaire (Q1) was sent to 2,600 colleges and universities throughout the United States asking the recipients for the names and addresses of consortia in which they held membership. It also included three items asking nonconsortium libraries about any prior experience with consortia and about their attitude toward possible future participation in cooperative activities. The purpose of the latter questions was to provide a basis for identifying and adding new participants to the Directory, should it be decided to update the Directory in a year or two.

Of the 2,600 Q1's mailed, 1,000 were returned within four weeks following the initial mailing. A follow-up mailing, sent to the 1,600 colleges and universities that had not responded, resulted in an additional 516 returns, for a total of 1,516. Of the 1,516 libraries responding, 698 or forty-six percent reflected participation in some kind of cooperative activity.* Of these, 409 were identified as possible academic library consortia, and these became the target audience for a second, more detailed questionnaire (Q2).

The total number of Q2's returned to SDC was 173. The other 236 groups not filling out a Q2 indicated either by letter or telephone that they were not academic library consortia or that they were otherwise outside the scope of the study.

In the process of screening the 173 returned Q2's, it became necessary to tighten the definition of "academic library consortium" in order to decide which groups should be included in the directory. To comply with the original intentions of USOE, the project staff developed the following six criteria for inclusion in the Directory:

1. The cooperative must be organized voluntarily to pursue activities of benefit to the academic participants involved.
2. The participating institutions must be autonomous; that is, they must report to separate Boards of Regents or other separate, higher level governing bodies.
3. More than half the members of the group must be academic libraries.
4. Two or more libraries must be involved, with activities extending beyond traditional interlibrary loan as defined by ALA rules.
5. If the library cooperative is part of a higher level, multipurpose higher education consortium, it must be a separate entity with the goal of improving library service.
6. The consortium must have developed beyond the exploratory stage, i.e., the group must have declared itself a cooperative en-

* Of the 783 Q1 respondents who did not belong to a consortium, 216 gave their reasons for nonmembership. The three most mentioned reasons were lack of need (fifty-eight libraries), prohibitive cost (thirty-six libraries), and administrative difficulties (thirty-three libraries). Some libraries mentioned that no one had ever proposed membership to them.

tity and must at least be planning joint activities.

Application of these criteria resulted in the elimination of forty-nine Q2 returns, leaving 125 academic library consortia for inclusion in the Directory.

In preparing the Directory, the data for each consortium were first edited for completeness and then keyboarded directly from the questionnaire on an IBM Magnetic Tape Selectric Typewriter. A draft of each entry was sent to the subject with an accompanying letter and checklist requesting that the entry be reviewed and any missing material added. Ninety percent of the entries in the Directory responded with updated drafts and/or missing information. Any further questions were resolved with follow-up phone calls.

The survey procedures followed make it highly likely that a very high percentage—if not all—of the existing academic library consortia in the U.S. were identified and that their entries in the *Directory of Academic Library Consortia* are accurate and complete.

The In-Depth Case Studies

The Q2 survey returns provided a wealth of information on various aspects of academic library consortia: objectives, financial planning, management and staffing, facilities, and problem-solving and evaluative techniques. To supplement this information and to provide more in-depth information on the problems and issues associated with consortium development, the project staff conducted a case-study analysis of fifteen selected groups. In selecting the subjects to be visited, careful consideration was given to the following variables and factors of interest, as reflected in the Q2 returns:

- —Breadth and scope of the consortium's purpose and objectives
- —Existence of centralized headquarters
- —Number of members
- —Geographic distance between participants
- —Membership in multipurpose higher education consortia
- —Amount, source, and stability of funding
- —Homogeneity of participating libraries, e.g., with respect to type and size
- —Length of existence
- —Kinds of agreements and rules for participation
- —Current mix of planned and operating activities
- —Staffing patterns
- —Views on problems and recommended solutions
- —Extent of direct services from the headquarters facility (if any)
- —Extent of automation

The final group of consortia selected by SDC and approved by USOE comprised:

- —Associated Colleges of Central Kansas
- —Collection and Evaluation of Materials on Black Americans
- —Colorado Academic Libraries Book Processing Center
- —Common Library of the Graduate Theological Union
- —Consortium of Universities
- —Consortium of Western Colleges and Universities
- —Dayton-Miami Valley Consortium Libraries
- —Five Associated University Libraries (FAUL)
- —Kansas City Regional Council for Higher Education (KCRCHE)
- —Mississippi Valley Libraries Cooperative Service
- —New England Library Information Network (NELINET)
- —New Hampshire College and University Council (NHCUC)
- —Northwest Association of Private Colleges and Universities (NAPCU)
- —Ohio College Library Center (OCLC)

—Tri-State College Library Cooperative

The general plan in conducting the case-study analysis was to spend one day at the headquarters facility (if there was one) and one or two days following with one or two member libraries, with a follow-up visit to headquarters or extended visits to more member libraries, if necessary. The kinds of persons interviewed at the headquarters included the Director (or Coordinator or Chairman), the director of the board of trustees, staff members, and representatives of the State Library. If the library cooperative were part of an educational consortium, we contacted the Director of the educational consortium and/or the faculty member who represented the librarians to the educational group. At individual libraries, we interviewed directors and staff members of libraries that were currently members, and directors of libraries that had been members but had withdrawn from the consortium. The interviews varied in length from one to four and a half hours. In all, seventy persons were interviewed in the course of fifty-eight interviews.

To help ensure collection of all required information, as well as the best use of interviewers' and interviewees' time, two detailed field site visit checklists were developed and tested: one for headquarters, and one for individual library members. The checklist for headquarters devoted approximately half of its coverage to planning and development, and the other half to operational matters, including purposes and objectives, financial support activities, facilities, personnel and management, and evaluation and measurement. The checklist for library members covered a more limited range of topics, focusing on the benefits to the library from participation and the problems associated with participation. Wherever possible, evaluative information provided by the headquarters was cross-checked with that of individual library members, to ensure that the case-study analysis reflected both perspectives.

The first group of visits to five consortia was conducted in the summer of 1970. These groups had been suggested by USOE and available preliminary information had suggested that they would indeed provide rewarding visits. These visits, carried out before Q2 survey returns were available, helped to test and refine the field site visit checklists.

Most of the field site interviews were carried out by a team of two librarians/system analysts, with tape recorder backup; several were conducted by one librarian/analyst and a few, early in the project, were conducted by three project staff members as a training exercise, and as an aid in defining the most uniform and productive interview procedures. The tape recordings were transcribed, and copies of the transcripts keyed for later analysis in connection with the Guidelines document.

It should be mentioned that those interviewed were extraordinarily cooperative. They recognized the importance of helping other libraries to avoid some of the problems that they themselves had encountered and were, therefore, quite candid in identifying their major problems and in suggesting ways in which others could avoid or minimize similar problems. One consortium director almost insisted on the project team's talking to a particular member library that was quite disenchanted with the group's progress, as well as with libraries that were very well satisfied. This was consistent with our general procedure, which was to attempt to interview both satisfied and dissatisfied member libraries.

Findings and Implications

Range and Scope of Consortium Activities

The cooperative activities in which the greatest number of academic library

TABLE 1

LIST OF LIBRARY CONSORTIUM ACTIVITIES

Activity	Number of Consortia Currently Operating Activity	Percent	Number of Consortia Planning or Developing Activity	Percent
Reciprocal borrowing privileges	97	78%	4	3%
Expanded interlibrary loan service	80	64	9	7
Union catalogs or lists	78	62	24	19
Photocopying services	72	58	11	9
Reference services	50	40	16	13
Delivery services	44	35	14	11
Mutual notification of purchase	40	32	23	18
Special communications services	35	28	12	10
Publication program	34	27	14	11
Catalog card production	34	27	12	10
(Other) Cataloging support	33	26	18	14
Joint purchasing of materials	30	24	29	23
Assigned subject specialization in acquisition	28	22	33	26
(Other) Acquisitions activities	22	18	21	17
Microfilming	21	17	9	7
Central resource or storage center	21	17	11	9
Bibliographic center	17	14	16	13
Joint research projects	17	14	18	14
Clearinghouse	15	12	13	10
Personnel training	15	12	21	17
User orientation programs	14	11	13	10
Other	9	7	6	5
Bindery services	7	6	4	3
Recruitment programs	6	5	5	4

consortia are currently engaged (see Table 1) are reciprocal borrowing privileges, expanded interlibrary loan services, the production of union catalogs or lists, and photocopying services. These activities typically involve low cost and low levels of required compromise among member libraries, and they provide fairly immediate benefits. In contrast, relatively few groups are engaged in activities, such as computerized catalog-card production, that require large initial financial investment, long lead times before benefits are realized, and hard-to-reach agreement on practices and standards. The cooperative activities being undertaken by cooperatives are described in greater detail in the Guidelines document.

Financial Support

The mean funding level of forty-seven consortia who reported their budgets is $75,000, with fifty percent (eighteen percent of the total) reporting that they operate on budgets of less than $75,000. Interestingly enough, fifty-four percent of the respondents report that they have no formal budget. Judging from the sample, members of consortia that have no identifiable budget carry out cooperative activities with their regular staff and do not know how much the activity is actually costing.

The two major patterns of funding are internal (consortium members) and external (federal, state, or municipal government, or foundations). Internal funding is obtained from dues paid by members, from fees for services or products, or both.

1. *Dues.* Dues from member libraries or their parent institutions comprise the major funding source for approximately forty-two percent of the total budgets for sixty-one responding groups. Membership dues vary ranging from $25.00 per mem-

ber (to cover postage and stationery) to $10,000 (to cover research and development of computerized library systems).

2. *Fees.* Service fees from member libraries or their parent institutions represent ten percent of the source of major funding. Service fees from individual users represent two percent. One problem that library groups experience when this method of funding is employed is maintaining a stable level of activity of operations until all fees are received.
3. *Dues and Fees, Combined.* Only five of the library cooperatives indicated that their funds are based on dues paid by members as well as fees for services or products.

External funding is obtained through federal, state or municipal support. In addition, a library consortium may receive money from a larger educational consortium of which it is a member; this money might consist of Title IIIC funds, or of dues charged by the parent institution. Although external funding can be of great use, only thirty-two percent of all the funding for the sixty-one responding groups is from external sources. Attitudes about sources of funding varied. Some members we interviewed welcomed external funding because they felt it makes it easier for the libraries to achieve cooperation. More often, those interviewed felt that it was unwise to rely solely on external funding.

Facilities

The questionnaire survey of all 125 library consortia indicated that use of computer technology is limited: Only thirty-three groups (twenty-six percent) use a computer, with service being provided most commonly by a university computing center. There were only two instances in which the computer service was provided by the library consortium itself. The cooperatives were asked to indicate facilities and equipment specifically acquired to support library consortium activities. The most frequently acquired items were office space (38 consortia), work space (28), telephone or teletype instruments (25), storage space (24), trucks or other transportation devices (21), and copying and/or microfilm equipment (14).

Management and Staff

The consortium director is responsible for providing the guidance and management control needed for the consortium to achieve its objectives.

The decision of whether or not to have a director depends on many factors, particularly on the range and scale of planned activities. Forty-one (thirty-three percent) of the 125 academic library consortia identified have directors, nearly all of whom are full-time. On the basis of the survey data, including the case-study interviews, it appears that a consortium is likely to need full-time direction if a broad range of centralized activities is contemplated. Activities such as computerized technical processing require a concerted, sustained management effort. If the cooperative decides not to appoint a director, then his duties have to be divided among the library directors. In most consortia in the case-study sample, an elected chairman shared the work with the library directors.

A question that often arises when selecting a director is, "Should the director be selected from the staff of one of the member libraries?" Some librarians interviewed felt that it would be a disadvantage for the director to come from outside the system, because it would take too long for him to learn about the operations of the participating libraries. Others felt that if the director came from inside the system, members might feel that he was partial to the library with which he had been associated. The final decision really seems to depend on how the directors feel about the particu-

lar candidates and their qualifications. Our observations, reinforced by comments from the literature, lead us to believe that, indeed, a special type of leadership is needed to provide effective direction to library consortia. Although made in reference to educational consortia, Paterson's statement (9, p.4) is applicable to library cooperatives: ". . . the kind of leadership needed for consortia calls for 'authority' to be based on the power of suggestion and persuasion—quite different from the traditional hierarchical leadership."

Relatively few consortia employ a significant number of full-time staff members. Most cooperative activities are carried out by the current library staff; separate staffing is employed only when special activities, such as technical processing, are undertaken. Interestingly enough, most consortia reported no difficulty in obtaining qualified personnel, when required.

Nature of Interlibrary Relationships

The questionnaire study, the case studies, and the literature on consortia (and networks) have revealed that the interrelationship of academic consortia —as well as academic libraries—is extremely complex. Figure 1 illustrates the interrelationships that were encountered in the study. For example, Library A is a member of an educational consortium, Consortium 2, the libraries of which are engaged in only one cooperative activity: the development of a specific subject area. Library A is also a member of an academic library consortium, Consortium 1, that is in the process of providing extended interlibrary loan and reciprocal borrowing privileges, as well as considering other possible activities. Finally, Library A is also a member of an academic library consortium, Consortium 3, that is concerned with centralized technical processing. Furthermore, Library A has had the option (selected by one of its sister libraries) to be a member of Consortium 5, which consists of academic and public libraries. In the meantime, Consortium 3 is in the process of negotiating with Consortium 4, in order to benefit from the latter's recent developmental accomplishments.

The results of the case studies suggest that most library consortia are in a state of flux, considering new activities and new cooperative arrangements for mutual benefit. It is interesting, therefore, that there is very little communication or coordination among groups. Many librarians were unaware of developments outside their consortium; this is understandable, since no directory or other comprehensive source of information about library consortia was in existence prior to the present USOE-sponsored study.

Evaluation of Consortium Operations and Benefits

Evaluation is, or should be, an important part of any cooperative's work. In the questionnaire survey, library consortia directors or chairmen were asked to indicate which techniques they used to evaluate the effectiveness of their library consortium activities. The results are shown in Table 2. The most often used evaluative technique consisted of informal feedback. More formal methods of evaluation were less frequently used.

During the in-depth studies, it was possible to gain better insight into how these various methods of evaluation were used, the activities for which they were most often used, and how well they worked, as well as some feeling for ways in which their use could be improved. Several groups evaluated the benefits of the increased library resources now available to users by totaling the collections of all the member libraries. One must question the value of this kind of evaluation. It may be impressive to state that the user now has access to X thousands of volumes, but the relevant question is, "Are these the resources the user

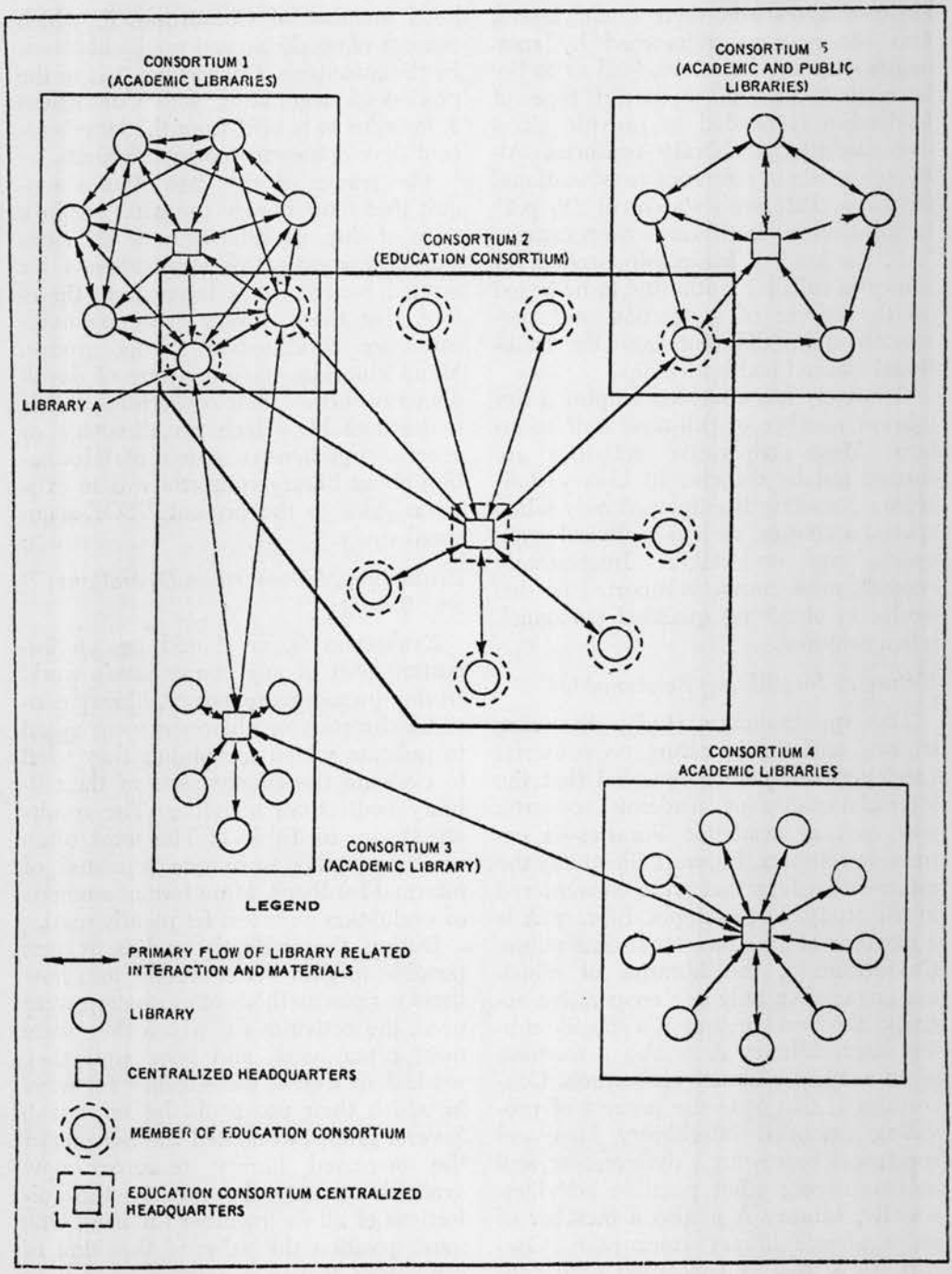

Figure 1
Possible Interrelationships of Libraries and Consortia (Simplified)

TABLE 2

TECHNIQUES USED BY CONSORTIA TO EVALUATE ACTIVITY EFFECTIVENESS

Evaluation Technique	Number of Consortia Using Technique[1]	Percent
Informal Feedback from Library Personnel Participating in Consortium Activities	82	66
Informal Feedback from the Ultimate Users of Services	61	49
Analyses of Costs and Usage Statistics	36	29
Formal Surveys of Operations at the Participating Libraries	26	21
Operations Research Analyses (e.g. Work Flow, Cost Effectiveness Tradeoffs)	16	13
Formal Surveys of the Ultimate Users of Consortium Services	13	10
Other	5	4
No Answer to Questionnaire Item	33	26

[1] Many consortia used several evaluation techniques.

needs, and is he using them?"

The more formalized methods of evaluation, such as analyses of cost and usage statistics, formal surveys of operations of the participating libraries and of users, and operations research analyses, were most often used by consortia engaged in large-scale computerized activities. This kind of evaluation was sometimes carried out by a consultant; in other instances, it was done by the headquarters staff, because an evaluation performed by outsiders was felt to be a possible cause of misunderstanding and dissension.

In addition to evaluating the effectiveness of specific activities, consortia need to make an overall evaluation of how well they are meeting their objectives. Most members interviewed felt that their consortium was successful, as judged by some of the following criteria:

1. Present members remained in the cooperative and continued to contribute time or money.
2. New members were joining.
3. Federal or other external funds were obtained.
4. The consortium had survived without external funds, or after external funds had ceased.
5. Activities were providing new and/or improved services for the library users.
6. Costs had been reduced.

It is evident from the questionnaire survey and the in-depth case studies that evaluation of activities is not extensive. The survey also indicated that fifty-four percent have no identifiable budget. One likely interpretation is that librarians are participating in joint activities in addition to their regular library activities. Thus the time and money they have to plan, to develop, and to evaluate cooperative activities is limited. Although time may be limited—and, in fact, especially because time may be limited—it is vitally important that librarians make a careful evaluation of the costs and benefits of cooperative activities. By so doing they will help not only themselves, but also other libraries that might benefit from cooperative activities and that lack only the necessary descriptive and evaluative information to appraise their alternatives and take the next steps.

Development Procedures

The only adjective that aptly describes the approaches taken by academic library consortia in developing their activities is "diverse." Indeed, our initial conception of consortium development in terms of a fairly linear flow of activities proved to be optimistic. When several librarians were asked to relate their own developmental history

to a sequence of steps distilled by the SDC staff from preliminary inquiries and from system planning theory, most of them commented that they had had to go through several of the steps several times.

The time required by consortia to achieve the final phase (Operation and Evaluation) varied tremendously and took, in some cases, up to fifteen years. In many cases it was easy to see, with hindsight, how the developmental cycle could have been shortened, even by a matter of years. With the wealth of experience that is now accessible through the *Directory* and the *Guidelines* documents, described in the next section, any group of interested libraries should be able to develop and move into operations in a relatively short time and with little or no wasted effort.

Major Products of the Study

As indicated earlier, two major products resulted from the study: the *Directory of Academic Library Consortia,* and the *Guidelines for the Development of Academic Library Consortia.*

The Directory

The Directory of Academic Library Consortia is a 290-page document, the main body of which comprises 125 entries describing currently known academic library consortia in the U.S. Each entry covers the following categories of information:

- Consortium Name and Date Founded
- Part Of
- Area Served
- Participating Libraries and Year Joined
- Purposes and Objectives
- Current Activities
- Projected Activities
- Special Services
- Conditions of Participation
- Annual Budget and Source
- Staffing
- Advisory Boards
- Publication
- Headquarters
- Information Source

The second part of the *Directory* consists of two statistical tables. The first provides an overview of all *Directory* entries along the dimensions of age, size, and membership, together with staffing and budget information and an indication of the kind of agreement upon which each consortium is founded. The second table displays the activities in which each consortium engages, thus providing an overall picture of the distribution of activities among the various cooperatives.

The third major part of the *Directory* comprises three indexes: the Directory Index, a State Index, and an Activity Index. Thus *Directory* users can easily identify consortia in their state or area that are engaged in particular kinds of activities of interest. By referring to the main entry one can also identify the appropriate contact point for further information. Judging by the cooperation received by the SDC project staff, interested libraries should be able to obtain a great deal of helpful information and advice.

The Guidelines

The *Guidelines* is a 200-page document intended to provide guidance for libraries that are forming or plan to form a consortium. Before discussing the content of the *Guidelines* a further comment on methodology is necessary.

In order to devise practical guidelines to improve the planning, development, and operation of academic library consortia, it seemed necessary to take full advantage of the knowledge and experience—both successful and unsuccessful —of existing consortia. Data from our initial site visits were used in conjunction with Grupe's procedural for education consortia to develop a first approximation of guidelines for academic library consortia. The initial guidelines were then discussed with persons at each consortium who were most familiar with its development. They were asked to com-

ment on how well the guideline steps fit the actual development of their consortium, and to make suggestions, as a result of their experience, on how a consortium should be developed. Thus, while the recommended approach to development that is contained in the *Guidelines* is prescriptive, it is based, wherever possible, on the lessons gathered from real experiences, of actual groups. In those instances where procedures used could not be recommended, recommendations were made on the basis of an application of well-recognized principles of system analysis and project management.

We have identified four phases in the development process: Exploratory Phase, Planning Phase, Development Phase, and Operation and Evaluation Phase. Each phase can be subdivided further into a series of steps, shown in Figure 2. Each step is described in detail in the *Guidelines*. The information included under most of the steps is a combination of descriptive material—discussing the various ways in which the step has been accomplished by various consortia—the prescriptive material—recommending ways of accomplishing the steps that seem most desirable in the light of the evidence gathered during the study.

The developmental steps provided in the *Guidelines* are modular in that (1) not all steps are necessary for every consortium; (2) steps may be used in different sequences; (3) several steps may be performed simultaneously; and (4) steps tend to be iterated. For example, if members of an established consortium wish to undertake the development of a new activity, they would find it useful to cycle back through Steps 3, 4, and 5 in the Planning Phase, as well as most of the steps in the Development and Operation and Evaluation Phases. While, obviously, no single consortium—planning model or any recommended series of steps will fit the needs of every planning project, it can serve as a useful point of departure from which adjustments can be made to reflect local goals, resources, planning experience, and institutional receptivity. The model development process suggests that the Exploratory Phase could be carried out by most in two to four months, and the Planning Phase in from six to twelve months. We believe that these are reasonable estimates, provided that the cooperatives take full advantage of the experience now available to them. The Development Phase is, of course, the most highly variable, since it depends upon the particular activities undertaken, and the Operation and Evaluation Phase is essentially continuous and open-ended.

Outlook for Future Development of Academic Library Consortia

If one can judge from trends, academic library consortia are undoubtedly here to stay. Ninety-six of the 125 organizations that we studied were established between 1966 and 1970! Furthermore, the predicted continuing development of education consortia (Patterson, 9, p. 3) suggests that more than a few librarians that are not now members of a consortium may, at some time in the future, receive memos from other college or university presidents informing them that they have become members of a consortium. One can even see faint glimmers of consortia of national scope. For example, several theological libraries have found it beneficial to merge their resources. Now, instead of being small libraries with small collections, the merged library is the third largest theological library in the country. This new library is working on cooperative arrangements with a large state university, as well as a large private university; it is also considering the development of a national network of theological libraries. This example is only one highlight of the exciting possibilities that exist for future growth and expansion.

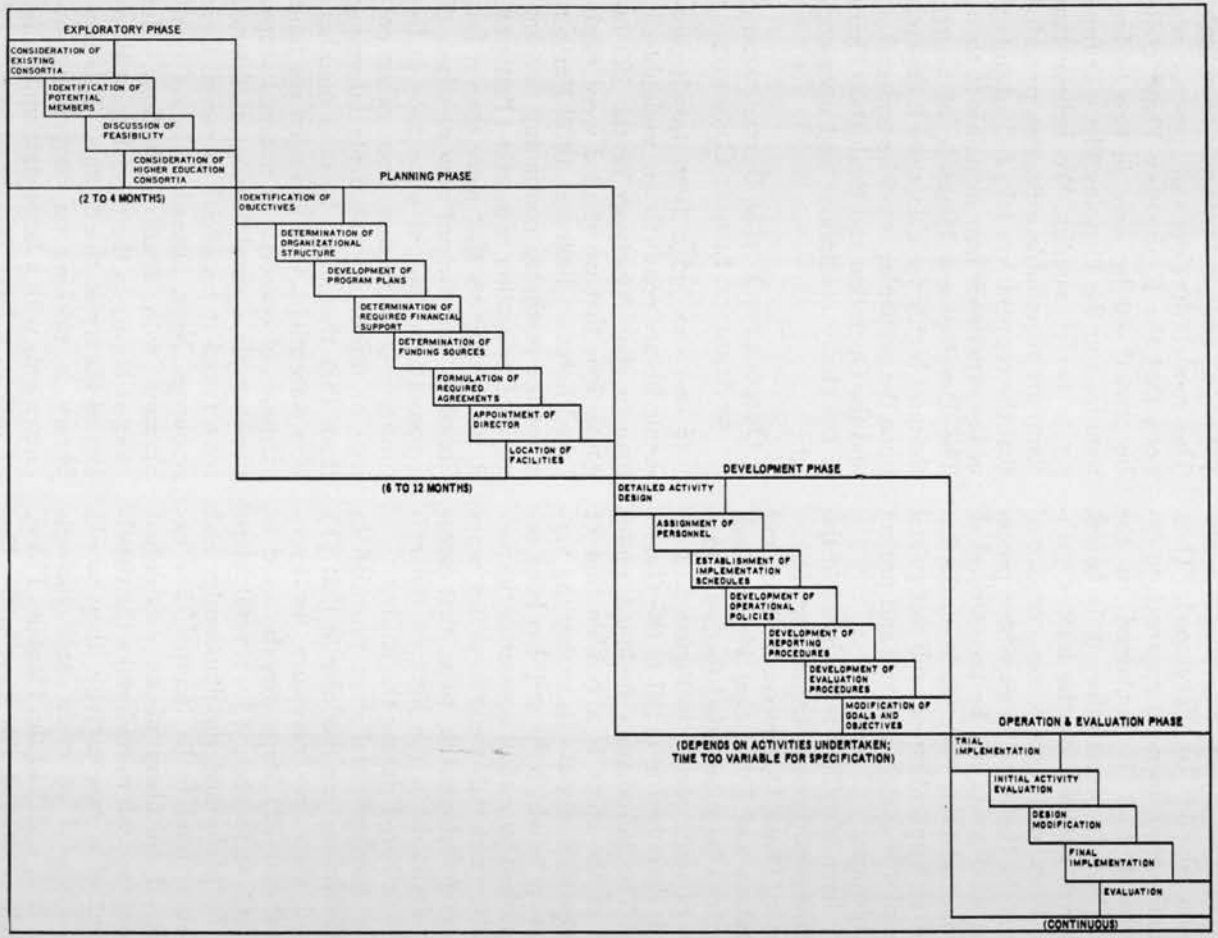

Figure 2
Model of Consortium Development Process

The pressure toward consortium development will certainly continue, at least until the nation provides more services analogous to the Library of Congress cataloging service (including MARC). One library consortium director expressed the need of national leadership in coordinating what has developed from this grass roots movement, in order to bring to fruition the electronic national library networks that have been forecast since the EDUCOM conference. As potential candidates for leadership he suggested the newly formed National Commission on Libraries and Information Science, EDUCOM, or the Library of Congress. Furthermore, the efforts of academic library consortia have to be considered in relation to other library consortia (e.g., special, public, and mixed), as well as in relation to comprehensive state network plans such as are being proposed in several states.

Barring the establishment of a national library system, which is certainly years —if not decades—away, the survival of many small private colleges is being threatened by the economic recession. Since many of these libraries cannot provide adequate service to their users, arrangements for cooperation among themselves or with other institutions may become mandatory. There is also increasing pressure on libraries to support new methods of instruction that—at least in some institutions—are causing students to become more independent in their use of the library and, as a consequence, are creating a demand for an even broader collection of library material for use in individual research. But it is clear that most affluent academic libraries cannot possibly acquire sufficient portions of the world's available literature to satisfy all their user groups; in fact, they must begin to delimit the fields of knowledge in which they will build extensive library collections. As this occurs, they will be forced to rely more and more on access, through reciprocal arrangements, to the specialized collections of companion libraries.

Given the viability of academic library consortia, the challenge is to find —and use—efficient means of establishing collective operations where there is clear need and strong interest. We believe that the two major tools developed from the present study should be of considerable aid in this regard.

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DIANE FISHMAN and RUTH WALITT

Seating and Area Preferences in a College Reserve Room

An investigation into the relationship between the architectural environment of a room and the patterns of seating preferences exhibited by library users. It was found that readers tended to locate themselves in order to avoid others. Also that the seat selected by the first person affected the choices of those who entered later.

"LIBRARY REPORTS are very rich in entrance and exit statistics, which show how many people come in and how many books are checked out, but there is a real gap in knowledge when it comes to what goes on during the reader's stay in the library."[1] In view of this need, the following study attempts to analyze the relationship between seating preferences and architectural design.

Our psychological make-up contributes to the manner in which we perceive our physical and social environments. Space, an aspect of our surroundings, is an important determinant of how we react to one another, and to current situations. There are four kinds of space in human societies: home, public, interactional, and body (personal space). The primary emphasis of the present research is on the last type of territory.

Personal space may be defined as the distance that a living creature usually fixes between itself and others in its environment. Trespassers may not enter into this region which is always carried as a part of the organism wherever it goes. Through the process of socialization, this individual distance is developed.

It has often been observed in man and in other animals that there is a tendency to mark off definite zones which belong to them and cannot be invaded by others. This is known as territoriality. The main difference between this concept and personal space is that the former is relatively stationary. The tendency to mark off ones own territory has been noted in a variety of situations—bus terminals, geriatric wards, cafeterias, and as is especially relevant to this study, libraries. Physical objects such as coats, books, handbags, and personal belongings are often placed in front of empty chairs to delimit individual boundaries.

The library is an especially important institution in which personal space must be considered. Its patrons require a variety of physical comforts (ventilation, lighting, heating) as well as varying socio-psychological atmospheres. Depending upon the activities in which the users are engaged, they will demand different

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settings in which to study or socialize. When designing buildings of any type in the past, there has been a distinct lack of consideration by the architect for the sociological implications of structural planning for the occupants. Recently, there has been a greater coordination between behavioral scientists and architects in drawing up building blueprints. It is now recognized that the designer of a university library must take into account the following considerations: (1) the teaching and research needs of the university must be met by the library (2) there must be an awareness of all the programs which will take place in the library building, so that adequate space may be provided for them (3) the educational objectives of the university must be outlined, and (4) the building must be designed with all of the above in mind—i.e., form must follow function.

There is no one ideal building design that will satisfy the needs of all colleges and universities; however, when planning a structure, the users' needs are the crucial elements in the design process and should be given top priority. The architect must be aware of the importance of space, and its impact on our intellects and emotions. Yet the design of a building is complicated by the fact that "the effect of good design cannot always be anticipated because different people view the same environment in different ways, and in addition, the same people view the same environment differently over time."[2]

"It is felt that there presently exists not only a lack of organization of empirical knowledge in the area of architecture and behavior but that there is also a pronounced lack of theoretical models for interdisciplinary research."[3] However, there is general consensus among both architects and social scientists that future studies should be designed to investigate this area more fully.

Methodology

As part of our investigation of the relationship between human behavior and architectural design, we undertook to study the arrangement and selective occupancy by patrons in the reserve room in the main library of Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey. The purpose of the research was to determine if there were patterns of preference in relation to the area of the room and proximity to other people.

The reserve room is a large, open area (80 feet x 100 feet) below the main level of the library, which operates on a closed-reserve system (items must be checked out at a reserve desk). The room contains a total of thirty-five wooden, rectangular tables—twenty-three (four feet by nine feet) with six chairs, three per side; and twelve (four feet by six feet) with four chairs, two per side. Thus there is a total of 186 chairs around the tables. The latter are randomly arranged in various-sized rows utilizing the two types of tables. There is one row of carrels comprising twelve seats in the room. A total of twenty-eight desks are arranged in three rows with four others randomly placed in two corners of the room. Two of the perpendicular walls are picture windows. Thirty-three soft chairs (couches) are placed facing outwards along these walls. Thus the seating capacity in the reserve room is 262 people. (See Figure 1.)

In order to determine seating preferences of library patrons, we decided to conduct our observations when the reserve room first opened at 8:00 a.m. and continued them until approximately 9:00 a.m. The research was undertaken over two semesters—in the fall 1970, data were collected for fifteen weekdays, and in the spring 1971, for twenty weekdays. In addition, other areas of the library were also analyzed. As each person selected a seat, the order of occupancy, the furniture location, and use or non-

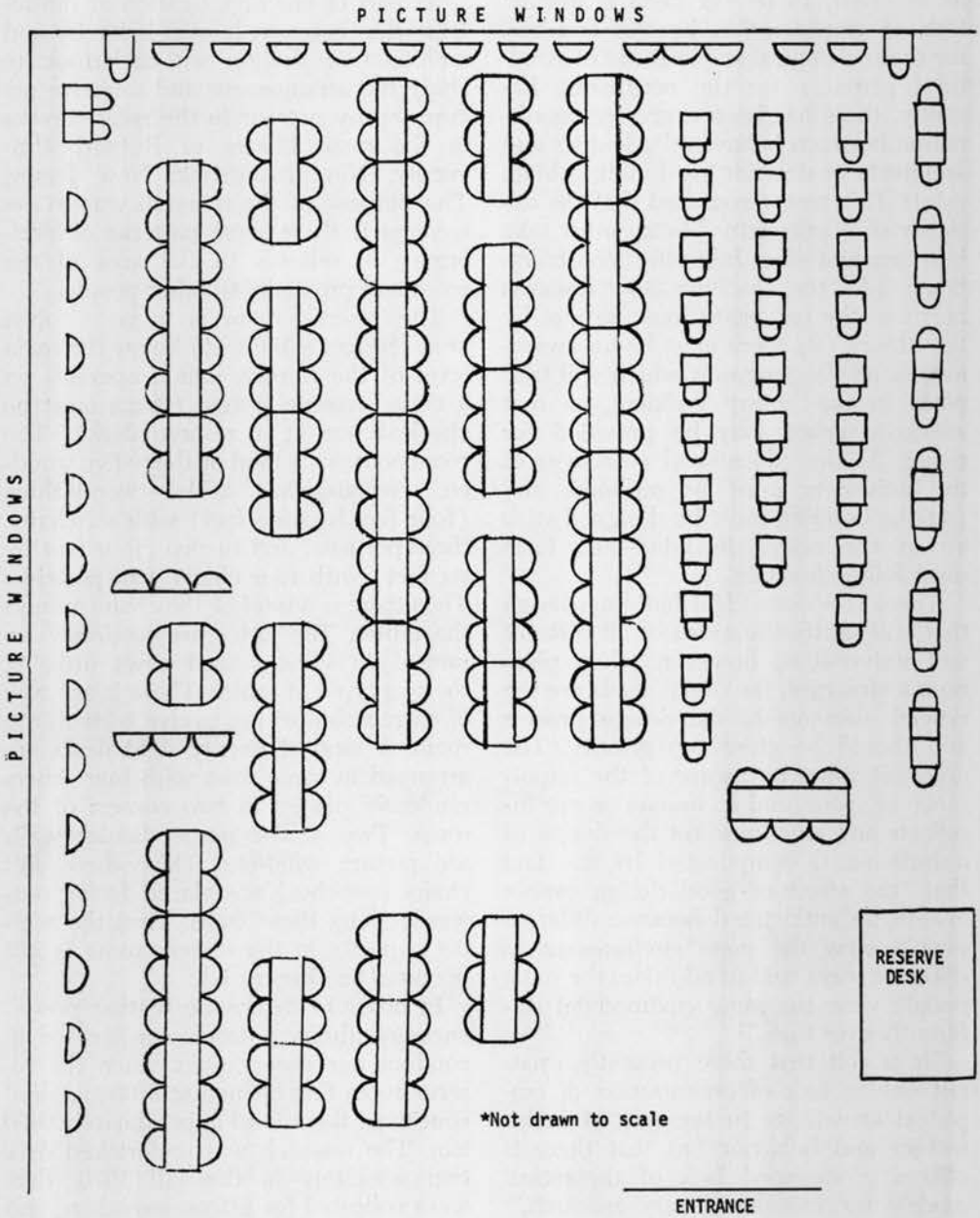

PICTURE WINDOWS
PICTURE WINDOWS
RESERVE DESK
*Not drawn to scale
ENTRANCE

Figure 1

use of reserve material (spring term only) were noted. As the early morning use of the reserve room varied considerably from day to day during the two semesters, only the first ten people (fall term) and the first twelve people (spring term) were included in our data to create uniformity. These particular numbers (ten and twelve) were chosen because on certain days these were the maximum numbers of people who entered during the limited time we had available before classes.

Results

One of our primary objectives was to determine at what position people prefer to sit at a six-man table.

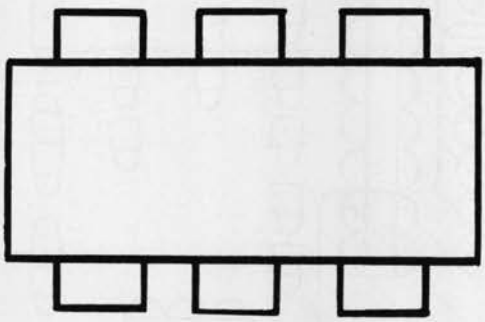


Figure 2
Diagram of Six-Man Table

We analyzed the data in terms of the end seats versus the middle seats. The percentages for both semesters in the reserve room were similar: fall term—81.8 percent (ends), 18.2 percent (middle); spring term—82.6 percent (ends), 17.4 percent (middle). The other areas observed (periodical reading area and general reading area), although based on a small sample size, also substantiated these findings.

In order to discover if there was a preference for the front of the reserve room (that half closest to the entrance and the reserve desk) as opposed to the back, we divided the floor plan approximately in half. This division was analyzed in two ways, horizontally and diagonally, in order to determine if there was a difference between the two. (See Figure 3.)

In regard to this sectioning, we assessed the seating preferences of users and non-users of reserve material. Contrary to our expectations, there were not significantly more reserve users in the front as opposed to the back of the room, regardless of the type of division used. (See Table 1.)

We used these two methods of sectioning (and added an additional diagonal in the opposite direction) and calculated the total occupancy of the front versus the back of the room. (See Figure 3 for methods of division.) In the fall semester, the percentages were almost identical for the two methods of division: front—sixty-eight percent (solid diagonal) versus 67.3 percent (horizontal). There was slightly more variation when using the dotted diagonal: front—57.3 percent. The spring semester showed slightly greater diversity between the solid diagonal and horizontal: front—58.8 percent (solid diagonal) versus 54.2 percent (horizontal). When also considering the dotted diagonal (front—49.6 percent), there was more similarity in the percentages as compared to the fall. (See Table 2.)

It would be expected that a greater proportion of the reserve room would be occupied by people using reserve material. However, as our results show, we did not find such a difference in the early morning—using reserve materials: 126 (52.5 percent); using non-reserve materials: 114 (47.5 percent).

One of the main aspects in our study of seating preferences was the effect of the presence of seated patrons on incoming patrons. This was analyzed with respect to the tendency to sit in the front or the back of the room. We acquired data for both the fall and spring terms on the percentages of the first people who sat in the front or back of the room

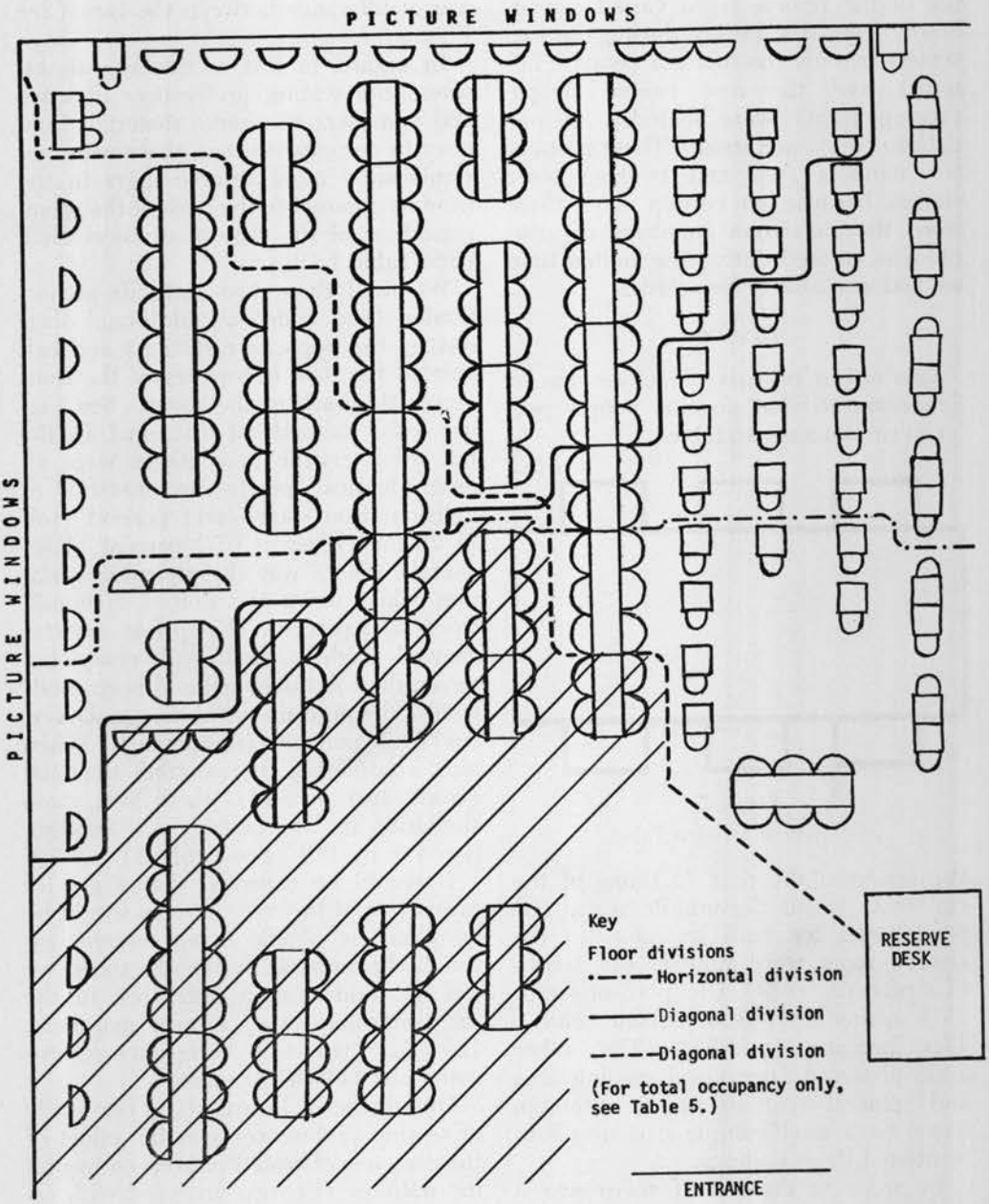


Figure 3
Division of the Floor Plan

TABLE 1

ACTUAL NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES OF USERS OF RESERVE AND NON-RESERVE MATERIALS

	Horizontal Division		Diagonal Division	
	Front	Back	Front	Back
Reserve	75(57.7%)	51(46.4%)	80(56.7%)	46(46.5%)
Non-Reserve	55(42.3%)	59(53.6%)	61(43.4%)	53(53.5%)
Total	130	110	141	99

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGES AND ACTUAL NUMBERS OF TOTAL ROOM OCCUPANCY BY METHOD OF DIVISION, AREA OF ROOM, AND SEMESTER

	Front Section of Reserve Room	
	Fall*	Spring†
Horizontal Division	67.3%(101)	54.2%(130)
Solid Diagonal Division	68%(102)	58.8%(141)
Dotted Diagonal Division	57.3%(86)	49.6%(119)

* Fall percentages based on sample size of 150.
† Spring percentages based on sample size of 240.

during each observation. This process was continued for each person who entered. We divided the room by the two types of division—horizontal and diagonal. There was a similarity among the percentages of people in the front using the horizontal division versus the front with the diagonal division for each of the order preferences. These results were generally not as close as those found for the total number of people in the front, contrasting the two types of divisions. Although the actual percentages of front versus back occupancy differ for the two semesters, there is a tendency for the percentage of people choosing the front section to be initially high and then decrease as more people enter the room (although this is more obvious in the spring data). (See Table 3 for complete figures.)

In order to discover if this was a significant finding, we graphed the cumulative averages of the percentages of people choosing the front for each person in the order they entered the room (i.e., the percentage of the first people who entered the room and sat in the front during the observed interval was calculated; percentage of second people, etc.; these percentages were then cumulated and averaged). (See Table 4.)

It is obvious from Figure 1 that there is a decrease in the preference for the front with increasing numbers of people. If an infinite number of people were to be observed, a certain point would be reached where patrons would be "forced" to sit in the back due to a lack of empty seats in the front. However, in the fall semester, after the sixth person had entered, there is a greater decrease (.722 to .686) in the tendency to sit in the front. In the spring, this marked decline (.589 to .556) occurs after the ninth person had entered. Because there are so few people sitting in the front in each instance when this point is reached, the patrons are still able to make a free choice as to where to sit. This choice is to occupy the back. Although both graphs decrease, they are not identical—the slope for the fall semester is more gradual. However, if the data for the first occupants are excluded, the slopes become more similar. At the point where the graph falls below fifty percent, more people will be choosing to sit in the back. This number of persons will vary depending upon the semester considered and whether the first occupants are included. If the complete data is examined, the shift towards the back occurs after 77.4 people for the fall and 28.8 people for the spring. By excluding the first occupants, this deciding number gets closer—after 66.1 people for the fall, and after 32.2

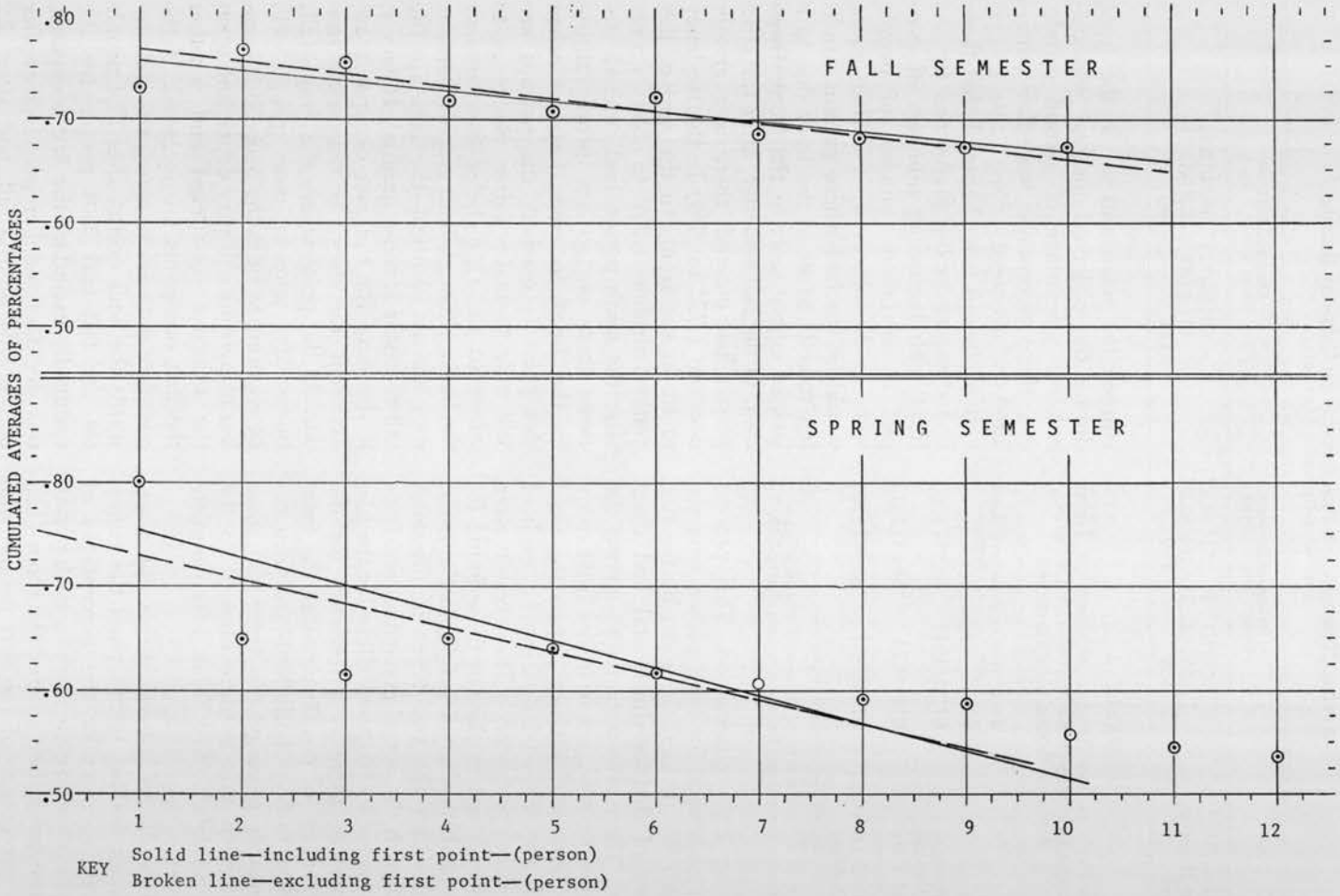

FALL SEMESTER
SPRING SEMESTER
CUMULATED AVERAGES OF PERCENTAGES
.80
.70
.60
.50
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
KEY
Solid line—including first point—(person)
Broken line—excluding first point—(person)

Figure 4

TABLE 3

PERCENTAGES OF ORDER PREFERENCES BY AREA OF ROOM, METHOD OF ROOM DIVISION, AND SEMESTER

Front Section of Reserve Room

Order Preference	Fall Semester		Spring Semester	
	Horizontal Division (%)	Diagonal Division (%)	Horizonal Division (%)	Diagonal Division (%)
1	73.3%	80%	80%	85%
2	80	80	50	60
3	73.3	73.3	55	60
4	60	46.7	75	65
5	66.7	80	60	60
6	80	60	50	55
7	46.7	60	55	50
8	66.7	73.3	50	55
9	60	66.7	55	50
10	66.7	60	25	50
11			45	45
12			45	70

° Fall percentages based on 15 observations.
° Spring percentages based on 20 observations.

TABLE 4

CUMULATED AVERAGES OF PERCENTAGES

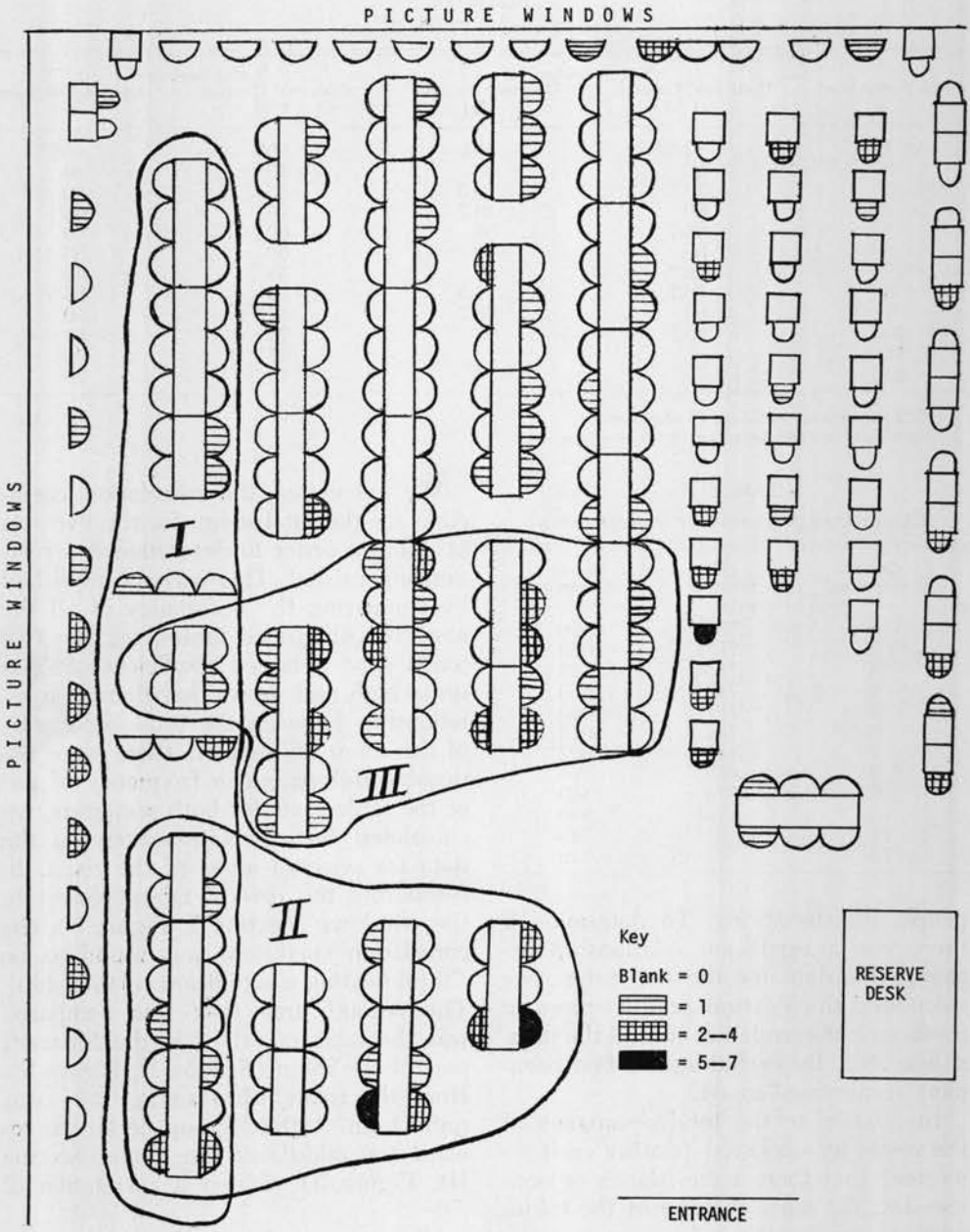
Order Preferences	Fall Semester	Spring Semester
1	.733	.800
2	.767	.650
3	.755	.617
4	.717	.650
5	.707	.640
6	.722	.617
7	.686	.607
8	.683	.594
9	.674	.589
10	.673	.556
11		.545
12		.538

people for the spring. To determine if there was a significant relationship between this data for the two terms, we calculated the Pearson product moment coefficient of correlation—for all the data, it was .462. By excluding the first occupant, it increased to .642.

In relation to the total occupancy of the room, we observed (during each semester) that there were islands of non-use—i.e., the seats at some of the tables were never occupied (during any one semester). This finding was established by analyzing the floor plan according to frequency of use. (See Figures 5 and 6.)

We calculated the correlation coefficient for the total room, for the two sets of data, in order to determine if a relationship existed. This was accomplished by comparing the occupancy of all the rows of contiguous tables, for the two terms. The obtained coefficient—.686, is quite high and shows that there is a relationship between the total occupancy of the room by area. As there were noticeable differences in frequency of use of the table seats for both semesters, we calculated the correlation between the data for selected areas of the room. In comparing the row of tables closest to the windows (Section I, Figure 5), the correlation coefficient was found to be .79 (indicating a significant relationship). The second area that was compared was the rows of tables in the foremost part of the room (Section II, Figure 5). Here the relationship again (.68) was quite high. A third group of tables, toward the middle of the room (Section III, Figure 5) yielded a correlation of .78.

We attempted to measure preference for particular type of furniture by its availability. However, we were not able to arrive at any significant conclusions due to insufficient data.


PICTURE WINDOWS
PICTURE WINDOWS
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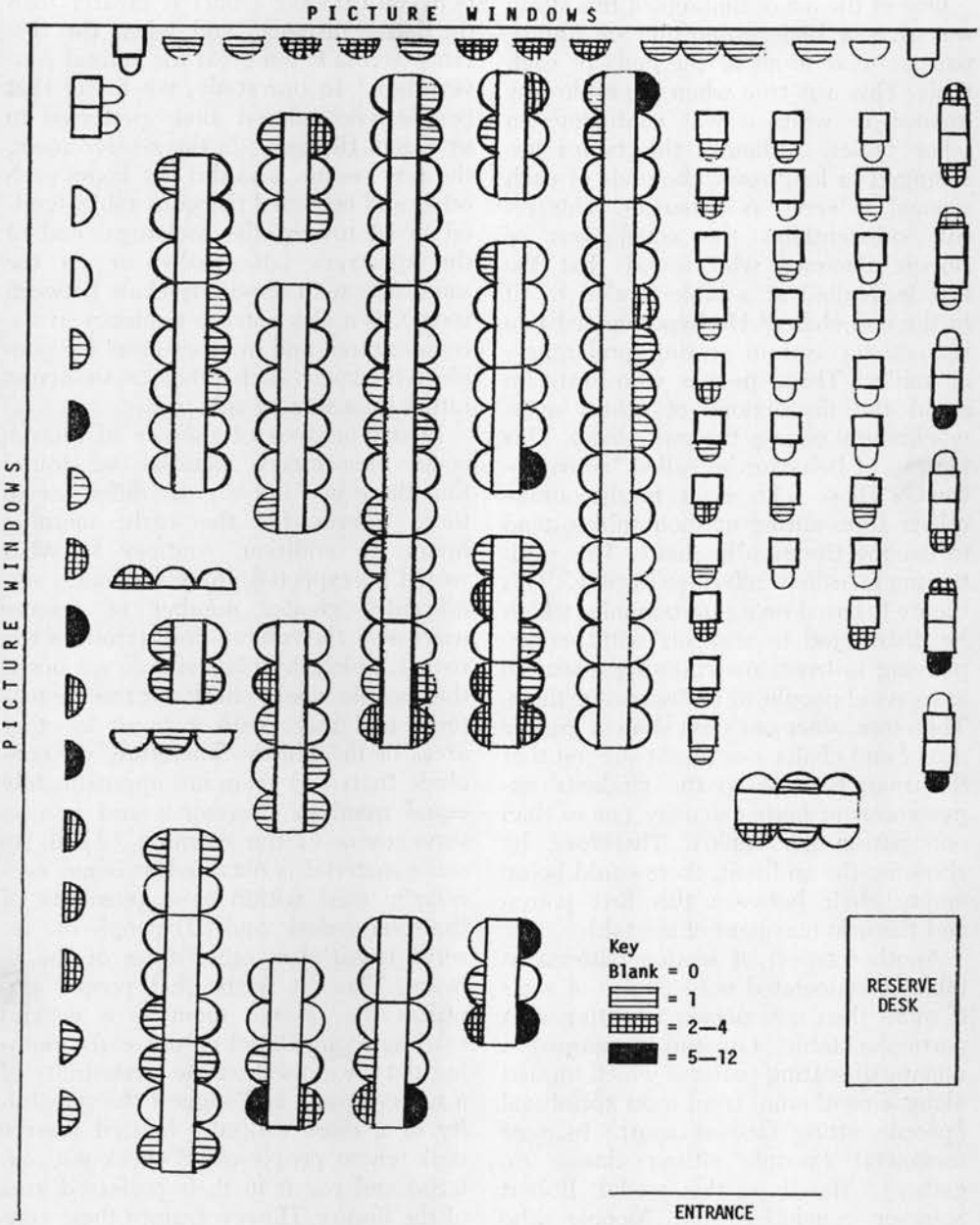
RESERVE DESK
ENTRANCE

Figure 5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RESERVE DESK
ENTRANCE

Figure 6

Discussion

One of the major findings of this study was that a high proportion of library patrons tend to sit at the ends of each table. This was true when the table was isolated or when it was contiguous to other tables. Although the tables are arranged in long rows, the ends of each seemed to serve as a barrier. This result substantiates the conclusions of Robert Sommer who found that the first individual at a table tended to sit in the end chairs.[4] He hypothesized two reasons for certain seating preferences at tables. Those people who want to avoid the distractions of others overwhelmingly choose the end chairs. This pattern of behavior he called "active retreat." Those who want to discourage others from sitting at their tables, tend to occupy the middle chairs. This positioning he called "offensive display." This theory is based on a questionnaire which he distributed to students with accompanying instructions—choosing a seat so as to avoid people, or to discourage them. Therefore, since our data show a greater use of end chairs, one might suggest that this may be due to the students' expectations of higher density (more than one patron per table). Therefore, by choosing the end seat, there could be an empty chair between this first patron and the next occupant of the table.

Another aspect of seating patterns at tables is associated with choice of seats if more than one person is sitting at a particular table. Osmond developed a scheme of seating patterns which formed along a continuum from most sociofugal (people sitting farthest apart) to most sociopetal (people sitting closest together).[5] Based on this model, Robert Sommer concluded that "people who came alone did indeed prefer to sit alone. When room density reached one per table, then the next preferred arrangement was diagonal seating."[6] Sommer also found that people prefer to sit across from each other rather than side by side except when the distance between opposite chairs is greater than the latter distance, and when the distance across is too great for normal conversation.[7] In our study, we found that people who entered alone preferred to sit alone. However, in the reserve room, the few people who did not know each other and occupied the same table, tended to sit toward the sociofugal end of the spectrum (diagonally, or on the same side with an empty chair between them). We also noted a tendency in the reserve room and in other areas for people who knew each other to sit across rather than side by side.

In our analysis of the use of reserve versus non-reserve material, we found that there was not a great difference in these figures for the early morning hours. In addition, contrary to what would be expected, there was not a significantly greater number of reserve users near the reserve desk (front of the room). Solely by observation, we noted that people would check out reserve material and leave with it to sit in other areas of the library. Therefore, we conclude that: (1) there are approximately equal numbers of reserve and non-reserve users in the morning (2) if reserve material is obtained, it is not necessarily used within close proximity of the reserve desk, and (3) people use reserve material in other areas of the library. Thus, it seems that people also utilize the reserve room as a general reading room. Based on our early morning data, we question the advisability of a reserve room and suggest the possibility of a more centrally located reserve desk where people could check out material and use it in their preferred area of the library. However, since these conclusions are based on a limited time sample, further studies would have to be conducted to determine if these conditions existed throughout the day.

We conclude from our observations

that the presence of a very small number of people does have a large effect on incoming patrons. Their behavior seems to suggest a desire to avoid others. All of our data show that even though there may be only a few people sitting in the front, there is an increasing tendency for the next to choose the back. Our statistics seem to indicate that the first person has a considerable effect on the future seating pattern of the entire room. By including the first occupant, the two graphs are quite different. However, if the first occupant is excluded from consideration, the graphs become more similar, and thus the areal seating preferences become more alike. In substantiation of this closer relationship, by excluding the first occupant, the correlation between the cumulated averages of the percentages of people sitting in the front for the fall and spring data also increased.

In analyzing the occupancy of front versus back in reference to order preferences and use of reserve materials, we had sectioned the room diagonally and horizontally. In addition, we also examined the total occupancy in three methods—horizontal and opposite diagonals. Although the use of two divisions showed a close relationship, the addition of the second diagonal created a triangle of overlap and thus narrowed the area examined. Since a similar percentage of people were seated in this region (see Figure 3), whatever method of sectioning is used, this area would prove to be a significant factor in the seating pattern of the reserve room.

We were also able to confirm, solely through observation, the tendency for people to mark off their own territory. This behavior has been noted among persons waiting in stations, cafeterias, etc. In fact, these actions have been carried to the extent that people often indicate "favorite" seats and are greatly disturbed if others are occupying these positions. In the library, patrons were often seen to place books, coats, briefcases, and umbrellas on seats next to them thereby discouraging others from sitting nearby and also delineating their space. When away from their seats, they often put some article of property in front of the place they were occupying. In regarding favorite seating areas, we did not test this hypothesis through questionnaires or keeping records. Yet, after sitting in the reserve room for several days, we did note the tendency for certain individuals to occupy the same seat numerous times. However, on an occasion, one patron refused to sit in his usual seat, because of its close proximity to another individual. These findings are further examples of individuals' tendencies to sit in avoidance of other patrons, or in other words, to sit defensively.

In the results noted above pertaining to total occupancy of the reserve room, it was stated that there were broad areas of non-use of the tables for both semesters. In addition other regions were used in varying degrees, ranging from a low of one time during our observational period to a high of twelve times. Through inspection, it was impossible to find a significant relationship between these two sets of data, but the correlation for the entire room was quite high. The randomly selected areas also yielded significant correlations. Therefore, on the basis of these results, one can conclude that seating patterns are established in the room. However, since our study was conducted in the early morning, when there was very low room density, it is difficult for us to determine why such area preferences exist, including distinct regions of non-use. Further study of this seating behavior is indicated.

In one of his studies, Robert Sommer concluded, on the basis of a questionnaire, that there were differences between carrel users and other students.[8] The former seemed to be more motivated than other patrons to isolate themselves. In the reserve room currently be-

ing analyzed, carrels accounted for only twelve of the 263 seats in the total room. However, on the basis of observations, carrels seem to be used more frequently. This is a further substantiation of patrons' desires to actively avoid others or to seek privacy.

Although avoidance behavior was frequently noted, all four types of furniture were used indicating that a diversity of needs persists. The design of library facilities requires that the architect take into consideration the personalities of the patrons and the activities of the library. An optimal situation would be the provision of a variety of areas—private study rooms, large reading areas, discussion areas, etc. An economical way to meet these structural requirements would be to build flexibility into the library, so that the same room can be used for various purposes.

Conclusions

1. The vast majority of users preferred to sit at the ends of six-man tables rather than the middle, and each contiguous table seems to be treated as a separate entity.
2. There was not a significant difference between the total number of reserve and non-reserve users.
3. There is a consistent percentage of people occupying the front central area of the reserve room.
4. The first occupant of the reserve room has an influence on the subsequent seating pattern.
5. Occupancy of the front of the reserve room is initially high and tends to decrease as more people enter. This shift will occur with only a small number of people in the room.
6. There is a distinct preference to occupy specific regions of the reserve room, and, therefore, some areas were never used.
7. All the data supports the conclusion that there is active avoidance or a tendency to seek privacy on the part of the library's patrons.

Recommendations

Through our survey of the literature, we have found that very few sources deal with the problem of architectural design and behavior. There is a noticeable lack of empirical knowledge concerning people's preferences and environmental needs. Therefore, we recommend that additional studies be undertaken to fill this void. In this way, structural planning may more closely coincide with the socio-psychological requirements of users.

More specifically, we recommend an in-depth investigation of why there are choices for particular areas of a room. Knowledge of the reasons for regional preferences may well have large implications on future library design. The use of questionnaires to discover the subjective needs of patrons is advocated. Observational data alone may distort the true situation and, therefore, two-way communication between planners and users is desirable. Because our data were limited in the time sample investigated, similar analyses should be extended throughout the day to discover if our results can be generalized. In relation to the Rutgers University reserve room extended time studies are advisable, particularly in regard to use of reserve material, to substantiate our view that the present reserve system is unwarranted.

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RICHARD W. LYMAN

New Trends in Higher Education: The Impact on the University Library

DOUBTLESS THERE ONCE WAS A TIME in which it was logical to look to a college president for prophecies, at least as far as the future of higher learning and its supporting institutions was concerned. The college or university president had time to think, a suitable vantage point from which to see the world of learning, and a well-stocked and, more important, well-perused library of relevant books and essays.

Habits linger long after the conditions that gave rise to them have disappeared. Nowadays the president's time to think is likely to consist of little more than the hours spent on airplanes (and even that will presumably be eroded once telephones are installed in jets), plus the hours provided by insomnia. His "suitable vantage point from which to see the world of learning" is all too much of the time the academic equivalent of a foxhole, and as for his well-stocked and well-perused library he hasn't time to stock it, much less peruse it. Why should anyone expect wisdom, still less perceptive prophecy, out of a person so beset? Yet you were so incautious as to invite me, and I so rash as to accept. Indeed, I could hardly do otherwise, since I firmly believe that the library is the heart of the university, that a healthy university cannot be without a healthy library—and that not enough university presidents fully and adequately recognize these facts. So here I am.

What can the leaders of research libraries expect as a result of changes in the world of higher education during this decade? Will new groups of library users emerge while others fade from view? What will be the library-related content of higher education, and will it alter in nature or total dimensions? How will society's shifting patterns of life-styles and objectives affect the research libraries? These are the kinds of casual queries put to me by your Program Committee, a group that certainly knows how to seek blood from a turnip. Fortunately, they did not ask me about the effects of technological advances, such as the microfiche revolution, upon higher education. Of the arguments over how soon and how completely these changes will in fact take place, I can only plead ignorance and quote from Richard Brinsley Sheridan's play, *The Rivals:*

> The quarrel is a very pretty quarrel as it stands; we should only spoil it by trying to explain it.

First, then, the matter of student population. While we are going to arrive at a much-advertised plateau, or even slip into a decline, with respect to the college-age population during the early 1980s, estimates of the U.S. Department of Education call for an increase meanwhile in the number of degree credit students at all levels from the 7 million of 1968 to 10.3 million by 1978.[1] The percentage increases at all levels and of

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Richard W. Lyman, President of Stanford University, presented the following paper at the Seventy-eighth meeting of the Association of Research Libraries held in Colorado Springs, Colorado, May 14–15, 1971

both sexes are expected to be smaller than in the previous decade, but that is scant comfort when one looks at the absolute numbers. In persons filing through the library turnstiles or lining up at the checkout counter with books under their arms, the trend is still dramatically upward.

There are voices to be heard questioning such estimates, and asking whether Americans haven't been oversold on the importance of a college education, and whether we aren't even now trying to send to college many persons who would profit more from vocational training, or immediate immersion in the job market.

I doubt that these voices will prevail. We Americans already have demonstrated a capacity for stretching the concept of a college education to include practically every form of skill or knowledge known to man (and perhaps a few that might better have been left unknown). Our ingenuity in this regard seems unlikely to flag. The growth of the community colleges suggests continuing adaptability, although opinions are mixed as to the success of these ventures in meeting the actual needs of their students.

I happen to believe that some of our difficulties derive from our rather undiscriminating notions of what constitutes "higher education"; people's expectations go unfulfilled because of them, and the tendency to reduce the whole thing to a matter of preparing for participation in the economic life of the nation has made us vulnerable to charges of Philistinism—even though some of those making the charge most energetically are themselves Philistines of a rather blatant sort. But the tendency to regard "a college education" as everyone's birthright will grow inexorably, in my opinion.

In all likelihood the educational "stretch-out," whereby even the Ph.D. does not constitute the end of the line and postdoctoral work grows apace, will continue. It may be—one must devoutly hope that it will be—the case that the prospect of still more years of preparation before a person can be considered ready to operate as a fully prepared professional will exert additional pressure upon the contemporary doctorate degree, to shorten its duration and lighten its burdens. Too many doctoral dissertations are still attempts to climb Mt. Everest, when skills that could be acquired by a brisk walk in the foothills are all that the toiler will ever need later in life. Too many dissertation directors feel such a sense of personal identification, not so much with the student as with the student's finished work, that they delay unduly the completion of the doctoral exercise while seeking perfection in the doctoral product.

Yet the total impact of all these shifts inevitably is going to be greater and more diversified demands upon research libraries. You are going to have to provide a greater diversity of services, both because they become technologically possible and because your users are going to be more and more diverse—as to age and ethnic, economic and social background. I believe it is not merely a fashionable cliché to suggest that there will be marked increases in the numbers of people dropping in and out and back into institutions of higher learning. All the signs point that way. "Future shock" cannot be contained otherwise. People's skills will become obsolete and will need refurbishing or replacement. And the increases in leisure time, for practically everybody except research library directors and university presidents, will give people both the opportunity and the motive to return to the classroom. Further, the drive for women's rights will continue to exert pressure on all institutions, including those once resistant to all thought of part-time study or over-age students.

The relationships between burgeoning state and community colleges and re-

search libraries have yet to be worked out; we all talk about interinstitutional cooperation but its growth is halting and sporadic. The pressure of an increased and diversified student population will make still more imperative the attainment of significant progress along these lines. If progress is made towards something approaching the British "Open University" the major research libraries will have to play their part, too. The combination of these pressures should (to use a hospital analogy) increase the load upon the library's outpatient clinics, as compared to its inpatient wards. The silver lining may conceivably be a greater awareness on the part of the public and the keepers of the public purse that a great research library is not just a piece of a university, but a community asset in its own right, and therefore worthy of community support.

But now I'm poaching in the game preserves of Roman Numerals II and III on your program, the Governmental and Fiscal Environments. Back to the users.

What will all these people be doing in college or the university? How will changes in what they are studying and how they study it affect the libraries? Here again, what I have to offer is largely conventional wisdom. The loosening of the bonds, once provided by curriculum requirements and by compulsory reading assignments within courses, will doubtless continue, at least for a time and in most institutions. I do detect the beginnings of some backlash already, however. At Hampshire College in Massachusetts, while conventional course requirements and majors are eschewed, there is an emphasis on the need for curricular structure and a degree of diversification from each student that seems to me significant. I doubt if most students really want to be quite as free from requirements, and therefore guidance as their rhetoric would cause one to imagine—or as the ablest and most independent-minded of them in fact are.

Still, there will be many, many more flowers growing in the catalog garden; that seems assured. The magic phrase, "interdisciplinary course," has not lost any of its appeal. Indeed, linked as it now is to the belief that subjects hitherto kept apart must be joined together in order to enable us to deal with the problems of our complex world, the password, "interdisciplinary," seems destined for still greater things. To some extent this is bound to feed the publishing trade with new categories of titles, although this is perhaps less likely to affect research libraries than the paperback textbook industry. More important for our purposes, the growth of new combinations of subject matter within courses will connect with the tendency to value independent study, and the research libraries can expect a greater usage from students now veering from the Reserve Book Room to the stacks, and a greater need for cross-referencing, both in bibliographic tools and by skilled reference librarians.

Even without the thrust towards interdisciplinary work, the familiar "knowledge explosion" has been raising the costs of bibliographies, indexes and abstracts to dizzy heights, as you all know. Mr. Ellsworth has said that the University of Colorado library now spends more on these items each year than its total acquisition budget fifteen years ago.[2] And with a greater number of students, possessing a greater variety of backgrounds and of preparedness to use sophisticated research tools, no doubt the costs of staffing will continue to increase, so as to make available to the student the help he needs in making effective use of these bibliographic aids.

It is a commonplace also that greatly increased burdens fall upon the library because of the need to reach beyond the confines of Europe and North America in acquiring research materials. Keeping track of publications of all kinds in

portions of the world where neither the publishing industry nor the bibliographic skills and services are well organized becomes terribly difficult. I see little likelihood that such pressures will decrease. We may or may not find ourselves tending towards some form of "neoisolationism" following our withdrawal from Southeast Asia—as Mr. Nixon says he fears will be the case. But I doubt that such shifts in the emphasis of public concerns will do much to diminish the scholarly interest in all parts of the world that gives rise to these acquisitions burdens. Proverbially, new academic areas are hard to shut down once they have been opened up. As the late dean of Yale College, Bill Devane, once observed: "The trouble with experiments in higher education is that they never fail." We had little or no scholarly competence in the Southeast Asian area before our disastrous political and military involvement there; we have little enough even now. But what we have we'll probably try to hold, and only the sheer rigors of budgetary shortage are likely to make any of us give up.

Since such rigors are having some effect, however, it might be worthwhile to utter a warning note here. If so-called "exotic" programs are eliminated because they are very expensive, and not least so in respect to their library costs, and if the job is done on an individual basis, each institution thinking only of its own programs and assuming that no one else is contemplating cutting back in the same area of study, the results will be very bad. The same pressures will tend to produce the same results everywhere if there is no effective coordination among institutions. We all agree that there should be greater efforts toward coordination in the building of specialized research collections to avoid expensive overlapping and duplication; I'm now suggesting that there must also be coordination in the dismantling of collections. If Siwash University decides that Balinese studies are too rich for its blood, it had better get in touch with others in the field to make sure that Balinese studies do not simultaneously disappear everywhere in the country. Cooperation in trimming programs could also dovetail with cooperation in building them; the now-to-be-unused publications that comprise Siwash's Balinese collection should go over to Alligator State, whose decision has been to keep its Balinese studies program going, but to cut out Samoan studies, which are being continued at Siwash. And so on.

Much is being said about the need for changes in postgraduate education. If the number of doctoral programs no longer requiring a full-dress dissertation should really increase, one assumes that there would be some lessening of the pressures upon research libraries. But here, as in other matters, it becomes very difficult to distinguish between lip service to a fashionable ideal, and genuine commitment to change. As one of our most experienced college-watchers, Professor Lewis Mayhew, puts it: "There are probably good reasons to wish for a change, but in spite of the fact that 111 institutions (in his 1968-9 survey) predict a new teaching doctorate (by 1980), visits to university campuses do not reveal widespread, active interest."[3] He also notes that despite conflicting opinions as to the need for Ph.D.'s in the coming decade, projects abound for new programs, and not least in those fields most closely dependent upon library resources, the humanities and social behavioral sciences. How the country will respond to the alleged oversupply of Ph.D.'s is perhaps more a function of political attitudes and the resultant availability or unavailability of money than it is of scholarly or institutional choices and ambitions. Depressingly, there are only a few signs of progress towards recognition of the fact that no society can support a full-fledged university at every crossroads, nor even a first

rate full-fledged university in every state. State colleges still press for the right to give advanced degrees; universities-in-name-only still strive to become universities-in-fact. Perhaps we shall see, during the next decade, a greater readiness to see merit in a consciously intended and cheerfully accepted diversity of post-secondary educational institutions. Certainly we must hope so, for otherwise we are likely to see more of the tragic and ironic situation in which universities such as Harvard, Stanford and Princeton reduce their graduate programs, while other institutions forge ahead to create new programs despite their lack of research facilities, such as libraries strong enough to support high quality work. As a result, the libraries at Harvard, Stanford, and Princeton will not feel any significant reduction of burdens, while new and impossible ones will be placed on the shoulders of library directors elsewhere.

Let me now turn to what one might term the personal and institutional conditions of life, as they are likely to affect research libraries. Presumably the winds of freedom will continue to blow in a bewildering number of directions. More students will elect to live like other citizens, scattered through the surrounding community, rather than in dormitories close to the library doors. More will take part-time work at all levels, while holding a job or raising a family. It is probable that research institutes and "think tanks" not closely connected with any university will proliferate. Indeed, if the campuses continue to be so frequently disrupted, a great deal of research presently being done in universities may move to less threatened quarters. That will be a tragedy, in my view, for it will leave undergraduates with fewer opportunities to learn what research really is (and unlearn some of the popular myths about it), while leaving university research libraries in a most anomalous position, bereft of many of their regular users, but called upon to work out cooperative arrangements from afar with burgeoning institutional users outside the university. Again, although the pattern of use may alter significantly, the burdens of providing service seem likely only to grow, never to decline.

Furthermore it is perhaps worth noting that there are still some fields—one thinks of law immediately—where the dominant research orientation of the post-World War II university is only now beginning to take hold. I think you will see the best law schools moving simultaneously towards practical work experiences for their students, and the promotion of more serious advanced research for both students and faculty. Not satisfied with having changed the LL.B. to a J.D. degree, the law schools can be expected to encourage postgraduate work to a significantly greater extent—again, providing only that funding can be found. And if the current crush to gain admission to our law schools continues, and if the current preoccupation on all sides with the enormous needs of our society for trained legal minds persists, even the funding problem may be solved, or at least ameliorated—no doubt to the traumatized surprise of law deans and law librarians who have become accustomed to straitened circumstances while all around them were waxing fat on federal appropriations and foundation largesse.

Against this must be set the perceptible decline in the prestige of research among many younger scholars in the humanities. Even if the teaching doctorate does not materialize to a significant extent, it may well be that the amount and kind of research which graduate students and younger faculty are willing to undertake will change, and in ways that lighten somewhat the strains upon the libraries. This is far too imponderable to judge as yet; one can only note the prevalence of disillusionment with the research mystique, and of attacks upon what the

critics consider too literal an attempt to apply to the humanities the styles and traditions of research originally developed by the sciences.

It would be rash to conclude, however, that a diminished respect for traditional kinds of research will make the research librarian's life any easier. For one thing there is the demand for a whole host of nontraditional materials; fewer students may wish to analyze the prosody of Ezra Pound's *Cantos,* using editions of his works and of works on prosody, but many more will want to listen to tapes or recordings of the cantankerous old poet himself reading from the *Cantos.* If, as seems likely, more people take seriously the idea of lifelong education, and if, as seems very unlikely, television finally begins to contribute to the cultural life of the country in a way more worthy of its initial promise, thus stimulating the appetites of the general public for knowledge, the libraries will find themselves beset with cries for help from many outside the universities, and will have to respond.

It may be well at this point to recognize another and downright disagreeable result that may come from changing life styles. Heaven knows that we have already seen instances of brutal disregard for the fragility of a great library, and for the rights of other users. Political protests have in several institutions included vandalism directed at the library, and especially at that precious key to its use, the catalog. At Stanford last (1970-71) year, several thousand catalog entry cards were removed, in many cases defaced or destroyed, as part of a campaign of harassment on behalf of a library employee who had been penalized for his part in a campus disruption. There have been cases of arson in libraries that chill any booklover's heart. And politics aside, the general incidence of theft and careless or outright destructive misuse has become serious cause for concern.

It would be bad enough if one could explain such developments by the fact that many persons are now coming into contact with great libraries for the first time, and are doing so with inadequate preparation to respect their value, or to measure the seriousness of damage done to the collections or the catalogs. Unfortunately, this is almost certainly not the cause of the trouble. Rather it is merely one more expression of that pervasive disrespect for cultural heritage and for the authority of established institutions that infects rich and poor alike, but as far as one can judge seems to take more virulent hold of the rich than of the poor. In all too many cases, the new barbarians do not even have the excuse of an inadequate upbringing.

Less dramatically, but still a problem for anyone trying to manage a library, the strong populist egalitarianism of our time, combined with a love of self-assertion, will make it ever harder to devise effective regulations, especially if the thrust of those regulations is in any way to give greater privileges to some users than to others. As the complexity of services and relationships increases, and likewise the variety of materials collected by libraries, the need to keep track of users might seem greater than ever. But the chances of successfully differentiating among users according to seriousness of need are surely in decline. How could it be otherwise, in a time when some faculty (fortunately not many, as yet) seem unwilling to assert even that they know any more than students, still less that they have any legitimate claims to special attention in the library or anywhere else?

Unhappily, the demand for equal treatment generally takes the form of equal immunity for all, rather than equal subjection to rational regulation for all.

But this paper was not intended to be a political polemic, and I would return to the more general topic with one sweepingly destructive observation. It seems to me that when all of the pre-

dicting and the extrapolation of trends is done, we are still left with the stark recognition that a few macro-events entirely outside the world of scholarship can and probably will make mockery of all efforts to peer ahead. Professor Mayhew reminds us how suddenly the assassination of Martin Luther King altered the situation with regard to the admission of disadvantaged minority students in all the major universities of the country.[4] Granted, trends were already visible, headed in the same direction; but nothing so dramatic by way of enrollment increases and program innovations would have taken place without this transforming tragedy.

Similarly, the fate of the great issues of our time, from war and peace to the possible invention of breathable air, can produce sudden wrenchings or profound alterations in the course of research libraries. Short of the coming of some new Dark Ages (and how one wishes that some people knew enough human history to recognize that as a distinct possibility!), one can be reasonably sure that the future of the libraries will be shaped by the one word, "more." More materials, more users, more services, more relationships to other agencies, more dependence on advanced technology, more need for managerial and diplomatic skills of a very high order—the list is endless. You must be brave people to occupy the positions you now hold; you are not likely to require less courage in the course of the coming decade.

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EARL C. BOLTON

Response of University Library Management to Changing Modes of University Governance and Control

> If I were founding a university I would found first a smoking room; then when I had a little more money in hand I would found a dormitory; then after that, or more probably with it, a decent reading room and a library. After that, if I still had more money that I couldn't use, I would hire a professor and get some textbooks.
>
> —Stephen Leacock, *Oxford As I See It*

I BEGIN WITH THIS QUOTATION from Stephen Leacock not to deliver some kind of an attention-getting psychic shock to my auditors—(for you will note that Leacock places libraries in the campus pecking order somewhere between the smoking room and textbooks)—but rather to call attention to the fact that in his listing of priorities administrators do not "make the team" at all. This delightful British approach regarding the importance of administrators may exist in our moments of wishfulfillment on our own campuses, but in fact the top administrators in our institutions of higher education have enormous influence in all aspects of campus life including our libraries.

My remarks are intended to explore changing patterns in campus finance and administration and to investigate the interaction between the central campus administration and the library administration. To do this, I am going to have to engage in one of mankind's most hazardous activities—predicting the future. I am willing to undertake this foolhardy enterprise because of the courageous example set by those who selected the theme for this conference, "The University Library in the Seventies," and assigned the many anticipatory and prospective subjects which we will be discussing today and tomorrow.

For nearly thirty years as student, graduate student, faculty member and administrator, I have been attending various academic meetings, conferences and conventions. As we all know, these often are centered around the status quo, some recently concluded project of interest, the history of some worthwhile effort or the whipping of a dead horse. Although it is indeed much safer to whip a dead horse than to try to tame a live one, I heartily commend those who assigned to this conference a forward-looking orientation and hope that, by the time we go our separate ways Sunday, we all have some slightly better insights into how to deal with what may turn out to be the Schizophrenic Seventies.

In reminiscing about the 1960s in higher education in this country, I think

This paper was presented at the Seventy-eighth meeting of the Association of Research Libraries held in Colorado Springs, Colorado, May 14-15, 1971, by Earl C. Bolton, Vice President of the Institutional Management Division of Booz, Allen and Hamilton, Inc.

it is fair to characterize that decade as a time of:

Great growth and expansion,
Application of confrontational tactics to the campus and to campus issues,
Relative affluence, and
Growing disenchantment in the minds of some donors, legislators, voters, and the "general public" (if there is such a thing) regarding the role and operations of colleges and universities.

What will be the main trends on the campuses during the 1970s? If we could meet together here in 1981, what are the labels which we might attribute to this decade? All planning is based on some assumptions about the nature of our future environment, and I suggest that if we continue to speculate throughout this meeting regarding future trends, we will have the best chance of devising effective professional responses for the seventies. As one popular comedian says, "The future lies ahead." So let's take a look at it even though we know at the start that our guesses will be only partially accurate and will need constant readjustment with each passing year.

I suggest that the 1970s will be for higher education a time of:

Financial distress and relatively inadequate funding,
New modes of organization and administration, and
New roles for the library and the librarian.

Let us look at each of these predictions separately and explore their impact upon research libraries and the executives who are responsible for their effective operation.

Financial Distress and Relatively Inadequate Funding

A very melancholy scenario has been repeating itself on our college and university campuses during the last few years. A few months before the end of the fiscal year, the chief fiscal officer goes to the chief executive and says: "It looks as if we're going to have a deficit Mr. President (Chancellor)." The chief administrative officer, of course, asks: "How much?" The chief fiscal officer says, in effect, that he is not sure, that the available data are not adequate for a considered prediction and adds that everything of course will be done to keep the deficit to a minimum. About two months after the close of the fiscal year, the president returns from lunch one day to find his office crowded with several of his colleagues—the chief fiscal officer, the treasurer, the business manager, the budget director, the chief accountant, and others. The message is that the deficit was several times that which had been anticipated, and that it looks as if the year just beginning will be even worse.

At this point, the chief executive rapidly reaches several conclusions:

The fiscal reports he had been receiving have not been sufficiently timely or detailed for effective decision-making;
He is going to have to curtail spending dramatically and look for new sources of revenue; and
He had better call up the chairman of the governing board and the chairman of the finance committee immediately because the next board meeting is likely to be quite animated.

As the president looks through the budget to determine where he can make savings, he is more likely than not to come up with one or all of the following questions:

Can't the maintenance we had been planning for the library be deferred?
Can't the library operate with a smaller and less expensive staff?
Can't the acquisition of some of the books and periodicals which the li-

brarian says he needs be postponed until next year?
Why haven't we worked out some kind of a regional arrangement with the other libraries in the area? Whatever became of that idea of central cataloging? I wonder how much we are losing because of theft from the library each year?

I do not mean to suggest that the chief executive officer is going to single out the library for particularly harsh treatment, but I do mean that the library budget at every institution is always sufficiently large to attract attention, and that the president at least begins with the idea that perhaps there are fewer people with "tenure" and "security of employment" in the library than in many other areas of the university. He will ask himself:

How can I justify continued growth of the library if all other parts of the university are going to have to retrench?
Aren't there too many Ph.D.'s being trained, and didn't I see something that indicates that we will not need to create so many Ph.D.'s in the future? Therefore, can't we cut back on the materials needed to produce Ph.D.'s?
Shouldn't we charge for some of our services and try to produce supporting income?

I do not profess to have answers to these questions for the president, but I think they are likely to be very much in his mind and, therefore, specifically before us as we talk about the university library in the seventies.

I strongly urge that each of you imagines that your president is wrestling with the foregoing and related questions, and that he has just put his hand on his telephone to call you regarding these issues. Are you prepared to answer? Would it not be well to list such questions and others you are going to be asked, if you haven't already been asked, and get your closest colleagues to join you in thinking about the most effective replies?

For what it is worth, let me give you a note of encouragement. In the last year as a consultant I have been on more college and university campuses than I had visited during the previous three decades of my association with academia. I have yet to encounter a college president, chief fiscal officer, or chairman of a governing board who is planning to solve his fiscal problems at the expense of the library. This is not to say that library budgets will grow as they wish they might, but it is to emphasize that everyone I have talked to is at least giving convincing verbalization to the fact that the library is the basic core upon which the rest of the academic program always depends.

If your chief executives ask you some of the questions outlined above, you may want to remind them of the following theorems:

Deferred maintenance always leads either to (1) increased costs, (2) reduced scope or (3) decreased quality;
It isn't a fact that every book and publication available today can just as easily and economically be acquired later on; and
If the campus is going to produce a single Ph.D. in a given discipline, the fact that fewer total Ph.D.'s are going to be conferred does not materially reduce library costs.

In the polemics which inevitably surround the process of budget making, there is no way to predict which argument will prove the most convincing or lead to the best results, but it can be averred with absolute certainty that if you neglect to develop the best possible answers to those questions which are put to you by your harassed chief executive, you will not fare as well as you ought to in the division of whatever there is to be divided.

New Modes of Organization and Administration

It does not take an organizational theorist to conclude that in recent years most of the organizations, particularly the major bureaucracies, in our society are in trouble. The structure of our government, our military, our churches, our corporations, and our educational institutions do not seem to be able to cope with many of the problems confronting them. One reason is that our organizational patterns and procedures are based on principles of hierarchy and obedience which simply do not work as well in colleges in 1971 as they did in churches in the fifth century. It is a fascinating anomaly that, in an organization made up of highly intellectual and rational men, some of the most archaic procedures and principles of organization are tolerated without question and correction. If you have any doubt as to the primitive nature of academia today, just contemplate—with heartfelt sympathy—the information input overload which your chief executive must endure.

During the 1970s we will see a great change in the structure of and procedures followed in higher education.

The organization will change from its traditional form to a much more viable and humane structure where lateral interchange is encouraged.

Governing boards will acknowledge and accept their more fundamental policy-making role and leave administration to the administrators.

Decision-making will grow out of a much broader base of consensus and will be much less secretive and arbitrary.

The campus radical and his sympathetic faculty supporter will adopt the posture of relentless gradualism rather than the role of violent disruption.

For more than 300 years, the basic structure of our universities and colleges in this country has remained about the same. The decade of the 1970s is likely to see many experiments and some lasting innovations in how we live together. This decade may witness a breakdown of departmental autonomy and of the artificial divisions we have established in the realm of man's knowledge. Within a few years we may witness the election of our chief executives on some pattern not unlike the British universities. What is wrong with the idea that no university president will be hired for more than a fixed term (say five years) after which his performance will be reviewed, and he might be subject to a reappointment for an additional term if his performance warrants it? I do not really know whether in 1979 our chief executives will be elected by their peers or chosen for a fixed term by the governing board, but I do know that the role of the president or the chancellor has become highly unmanageable, virtually untenable and little of the fun and reward which once existed in this job still remains. Therefore the role of the president (chancellor), the organization of top administration, and many of the procedures which we have lived with in the past are likely to change during this decade.

If I am right and these kinds of changes are imminent, it is imperative that the librarian analyze how he fits into this process of change and where he wants to come out when the dust settles. Here are some ideas we may want to argue about during the question period:

Should the campus librarian become a university-wide official at the second echelon? Why not establish the position of vice president for university libraries?

Shouldn't the governing board have a standing committee (or subcommittee) on libraries? Or at least shouldn't the board hear a presentation concerning

the libraries at least once or twice each academic year?

Should not the university librarian, because of the universal impact his activities have on virtually every aspect of campus life, sit with the highest advisory body to the president?

A fair amount is being written these days about the symptoms, causes and treatment of neurotic organizations. The thesis is that organizations, like individuals, develop neuroses, and unless these matters are treated, the fundamental work for which the organization was originated suffers greatly. My point is that many of our institutions, including universities and colleges, have become neurotic and that pressures will be very great during the 1970s to change their organization and procedures in an attempt to correct these faults and make the institutions more capable of fulfilling their basic roles in modern society. The university librarian should consider this thesis with great care, and if he finds it to have merit he should plan the role he feels he ought to fulfill in a restructured university and work toward achievement of that goal. If the university librarian merely rides the reorganizational hurricane which I am predicting for the seventies, like a shuttlecock in a tempest, he could emerge in a less influential and effective position in the new structure than he holds in the present structure.

New Roles for the Library and the Librarian

Speculations about the proper administrative status of the librarian lead to questions about the role he should play during the seventies. As a starter, let me suggest that the librarian during this decade ought to become very much more of a planner than has traditionally been his inclination.

Planning is the orderly means used by an organization to establish effective control over its own future. As you know, to be effective any plan you devise for the future of your library must be logical, comprehensive, flexible, action-oriented, and formal. Further, it must extend into the future and involve human resources. I give this definition and enumerate these elements not only for the record but to stress that it is your responsibility to engage in planning whether anyone else around the campus is doing so or not. During the 1960s, when growth was rampant, optimism was in the air and relative affluence existed, planning hardly seemed necessary (at least very few were seriously undertaking it). When an enterprise is burgeoning, the enthusiasm of growth seems to carry it on toward adequate handling of the challenges ahead. When the fiscal horizons are bleak and retrenchment is indicated, planning is crucial but much more difficult to accomplish. And the more difficult planning becomes, the more important it is for the creative executive to undertake this painful process. Accentuate your role therefore as a planner.

The librarian also should acknowledge his role as a fund raiser. (Are those sighs or groans I hear among you?) I am afraid it is inevitable that, just as surely as the president will single out the library for cost reduction opportunities, he will ask the librarian to assist in raising additional funds. His questions will include the following:

Can we charge something more for our services?

Can you organize a "friends of the library" or can you somehow stimulate additional memberships for an existing group?

The easiest response for you to make at this juncture is to insist that you are a librarian, not a fund raiser. But I urge you to consider another alternative. Although development officers will loudly proclaim an opposite view, there is noth-

ing mysterious about the art of raising funds, but if you do not personally savor this activity, ask the president for a professional to help you. It is still true that if you provide a professional fund raiser with his administrative costs, 10 percent, 12 percent, or 15 percent, or stated otherwise, 10 cents, 12 cents, or 15 cents, he can raise for you a dollar. If he is a true professional he will stop asking for additional administrative pump-priming dollars if he concludes that they can't produce new benefactions. Unless you are serving an exceptional institution, your campus is in poor, difficult and, in some cases, dire financial straits. My recommendation is that instead of avoiding the responsibility for fund raising you reach for it and ask for the help you need if fund raising is not among your many skills.

Also become an innovator. Innovation always costs money and, therefore, may seem a little inconsistent with the points I have just made. However, innovation pursued by thoughtful and dedicated executives will increase effectiveness and decrease costs.

It seems clear to me that the current popularity of selfstudy programs, "universities without walls," and expanded adult education will greatly increase the requirements of the library. The tidal wave is coming and several of the subjects in the program of this meeting recognize its imminence. Can you not demonstrate to your president that timely preparation for the inevitable onslaught will prove economical in the end? In short, I am urging that you seize the initiative and point out where future shock is going to hit the library.

This is the decade of Educom, Edunet, communications satellites, facsimile transmission, and burgeoning opportunities for visual outreach. We are close to the time when thousands of students, hundreds of miles apart, will be able to listen to the most distinguished professor in a given field discuss the most recent innovations and his latest thoughts about them. By the end of the 1970s we will surely have data transmission systems which will allow you to call up from a distant place a document needed by one of your users. Too expensive, your president may say, but can we not convince him that the costs of this equipment will be far less than building and maintaining adequate collections in every area your users may require?

Further, the librarian must remain flexible, and here I may be treading upon the thinnest ice yet encountered. I predict that you have on your staff many who are almost too rigid, meticulous, and precise. Indeed, these traits may have led them into the orderliness and symmetry of cataloging systems and the joys of collecting and arranging human knowledge. You would not have emerged as a qualified administrator if you had not been able to deal effectively with these tendencies in the staff. But I am urging that even greater flexibility among librarians may be called for in the future. Standing as you are at that point where so many forces converge, it may become necessary to accept many more compromises than have heretofore proved acceptable. You stand at that focus where financial pressures, increased user demands, vast expansion of printed materials and improved techniques of publishers and book salesmen converge. The delays in acquiring, cataloging, and shelving a book may not result from traditional and rigid practices but many administrators and users think so to the detriment of library budgets. A genuine effort by the library staff to evince flexibility and creativity will enhance performance and dispel the idea that libraries are suffering from administrative arthritis.

In summary, the decade of the 1970s will be a time of dramatic change in our fiscal lives, our organizations' structures and procedures and the roles which all of us, including librarians, will be ex-

pected to play. To anticipate these changes and reflect on how to meet them is to go far toward solving the problems which are inescapable in the decade ahead.

Perhaps the greatest challenge facing any of us in the seventies is to keep constantly in mind the fundamental mission of the university. We become so caught up in program budgets, structure, procedures, personnel forms, requisitions, labor negotiations and hardware that we are tempted to lose sight of what the institution of higher education is all about. The idea that we are involved in the preservation, transmission, testing, augmentation, and application of human knowledge is so exciting that it makes the strains, anxieties, and frustrations seem worthwhile.

My remarks have been at times bleak and at times threatening. For my own psychic comfort, I would like to end with two quotations which underscore the importance of the university and of your work. The first is the brief statement of James Bryant Conant taken from his notes on the Harvard tercentenary: "He who enters a university walks on hallowed ground." The second are the words of Thomas Carlyle from his "The Hero as Man of Letters": "The true university of these days is a collection of books."

The 1970s will be difficult and frustrating years, but being a part of a university, you are directly involved with that entity which is likely to provide the best hope for mankind's growth, enrichment, and perhaps even his survival; and as both keepers and protectors of a man's knowledge, and as stimulators to its testing and use, you are at the very core of the university community. I wish you continued success in your vastly important undertaking.

FRANK G. BURKE

The Impact of the Specialist on Archives

This paper was delivered at the 1971 Program of the Law and Political Science Subsection of the Subject Specialist Section at the ALA Annual Conference, at Dallas, Texas.

IF THERE IS ANY DOGMA in the archival profession, it is that one does not rearrange or otherwise disturb the natural order of the archival record. Although it is quite permissible, and even recommended, that disordered records be returned through rearrangement to their natural sequence, an archival code states that natural sequence is inviolate.

One must understand the reason for this dictum in order to comprehend the archivist's insistence on it in practice. The justification is that the creator of the record was a rational being, and had logical reasons for putting one document in a certain juxtaposition to another, and that the filing scheme itself could thus be used as a finding aid once the scheme was understood. This thesis occasionally holds true, and the incidence of truth increases in direct proportion to the size of the file and the organization that created it, because large records holders require good filing arrangements—a simple truism.

Archivists, then, have dwelt on this concept of "respect des fonds," or respect of original order, in accessioning and processing records holdings. And since the records are kept that way, they should be described that way—that is, in their organic order. The description of records, therefore, is neither an index, since it is not an alphabetical listing or an item-by-item analysis, nor a calendar, since it is not a listing of all documents by date. Rather, it is an inventory, or a register.

Both terms are passive. One takes inventory of a warehouse, but the process does not affect the nature or arrangement of its contents. One registers deeds or legal instruments, merely accounting for them as they come, with no attributes imposed upon the material by the process. One may inventory records regardless of their order, and they are not rearranged to fit the inventory scheme. This is unlike cataloging a book, in which the process places the book in a scheme that is imposed upon it. Inventorying records merely recognizes their location in an inherited scheme.

Archivists in the federal government inventory by record group; usually a record group consists of the records of a bureau, or major large office within an agency. National Archives inventories, therefore, represent the vertical flow of bureau responsibilities, commonly known as a hierarchical format. Below the bureau are described its offices; within each office its departments; within each department its divisions, branches, and units. The inventory, therefore, is or

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should be an accurate description of the bureau's organization. Rarely does it reach perfection because of lacunae, and because organizational changes interrupt the time continuum of agency structure.

Inventories are but one reflection of an archivist's preoccupation with original order of records. In a major institution such as the National Archives, distribution of work responsibilities follows the same dictates as the arrangement of records. Archivists deal with specific agencies' records grouped according to some commonality. There are therefore, an Old Military Records Branch (pre-1918), Modern Military Records Branch, an Industrial and Social Records Branch, a Legislative, Judicial, and Fiscal Records Branch, and so on. Characteristic of a large institution, there is a certain built-in isolation between branches.

As archivists react to researchers, they tend to think hierarchically and organizationally. A research question is immediately converted into which agency or bureau had the function, which divisions or branch of that bureau, and how the records are arranged.

Under these circumstances, one can easily understand why research in archives is a rather personalized activity. There is considerable intellectual contact between the archivist and the researcher. One cannot simply walk into an archives, nod at the staff members behind the service desk, go to the file of descriptive material, fill out a call slip, and sit back and wait for the records. Unfortunately, not many researchers understand this. This lack of understanding is not surprising since undergraduate students have little cause for, and no significant training in, the use of archival materials.

Such is not the case with libraries. My ten-year-old fourth-grader recently was asked literally to catalog a dozen books as part of a work assignment. The authors and titles of the books were given, with brief indications of whether or not they were fiction, biography, science, etc. In an opposite column were twelve Dewey decimal classification numbers, and her assignment was to match column A with column B. I was gratified when I looked over her finished work and found that she got all twelve right. She and her classmates can orient themselves in the school library and in the public library. They have learned to read the book and card catalogs. When they go to high school they may shift over, effortlessly, to the L.C. classification. By the time they get to college, and, perhaps on to graduate school, they will be able to walk into any library in the country, take a minute for orientation; and, after learning the floor plan and local idiosyncracies of the institution, go to work. However, if they step over into original source research in a major archive, they will be in trouble.

It is this never-never world of archives that deters young graduate students from taking the initial dip, and it is astounding how many reputable scholars, with significant bibliographies of their own, will admit, in a weak moment, to never having breached the formidable barrier of archival research. There is even a reluctance by many to enter an archives to initiate research, not because the process is so complex, but because the process is unknown to them, and the adult researcher does not wish to put himself in a prospectively embarrassing position by admitting to an archivist that he does not know the first thing about using archives.

Archivists, of course, are continually on the alert for this attitude, and attempt to assuage the researcher's fears with soothing counsel to the effect that he is not expected to know anything about archives. They are prepared to be friendly and to help him over the initial hump.

For this reason most archives and manuscript collections have an interview routine. The researcher initially talks with what one might call a superarchivist

who knows something about the entire collection of materials and can direct him to the proper area and specialist archivist. The interviewer elicits from the researcher the bounds of his search, specifics he might be interested in, peripheral materials he is concerned with, and any other information helpful in determining the records to be used. In most cases, the interviewer then directs the researcher to an archivist who specializes in these records, and the interview process narrows until specific documents are identified. Once research has begun, there is further rapport between the researcher and the archivist responsible for the records.

There are still other basic differences between the use of an archives and the use of a library. One significant difference could be posited as the position of the staff between the researcher and his source. Both librarians and archivists act as the researcher's interpreters. In most instances the reference librarian stands between the researcher and the catalog, interpreting for the library user how to obtain information leading to his source. Once the user has been pointed in the proper direction through the catalog, the use and interpretation of printed matter is his private affair.

By the time a researcher gets to an archive, he may well have read all the descriptive literature in the form of record group inventories, since these are usually in printed brochure format and are available in many libraries around the country. At the archives, however, the archivist places himself between the researcher and the actual record, interpreting the user's needs in terms of the material itself—its arrangement, its relationship to other material, its internal finding aids (such as agency created indexes), and related matters (often even including historical significance). Very simply, it might be stated that the librarian is placed between the researcher and the finding aid, whereas the archivist is between the finding aid and the records themselves.

There is another implication here. It is that the archivist, to be truly classified an archivist, must be a subject or an area specialist, with substantive knowledge of the content of the material for which he is responsible. His value is enhanced by the length of time he has worked with researchers in the records, and this experience results in a significant professional difference between librarians and archivists. A young law librarian at Washington University in St. Louis might have become very effective through her knowledge of the reference materials in her field, and the bibliographic corpus for a generalized law library. Should she be given an opportunity to assume a better paying position, for example, chief reference librarian at another general law library, she could make an advantageous professional move, and perform her duties at the new post with little trauma. On the other hand, an archivist, who has assumed some professional stature at the National Archives because of his intimate familiarity with the records of Department of Justice, would find it difficult if not impossible to transfer to another archival institution except in an administrative capacity. His professional strength would be weakened instead of reinforced, and a move to, let us say, the Texas State Archives would not permit him to use the knowledge he might have spent years developing. Except for some expertise in the use of storage boxes, the transferred archivist would be of little more value to Texas than a young, inexperienced one.

For this reason, there is little movement among archivists from institution to institution. Even within an institution there is little movement from one custodial division to another. This inevitably leads to a certain insularity of archivists that may not be true with librarians.

The picture drawn thus far, then, is

of an institution containing unique documents of a highly detailed nature that, except in the case of genealogists, are rarely used below the advanced research level, or graduate-school level. To this institution come researchers who are untrained and inexperienced in the use of archival facilities. They find that records are kept, not according to any classification scheme, but in the order provided by the creating agency, and that overall the archives has arranged its material according to the structure and organization of the corporation or government whose records it holds. When the researcher seeks assistance, he is not confronted by a staff member who instructs him in the use of reference tools, points him in the right direction, and lets him go. Rather, he is met by one who presumes that he has a knowledge of the reference tools, leads him far beyond them into the very records themselves, hovers nearby available for further assistance should he loom up against the proverbial brick wall, and on occasion practically turns the pages and checks the indexes for the user.

Perhaps this summary illustrates that archival practice has been oriented toward the arrangement and description rather than the use of records. In the United States, really in the true tradition of major archives the world over, the arrangement, description, and preservation of public records has followed a practice of keeping them in an order reflecting government activities. This arrangement facilitates the search for specific information: a fact, report, or series of events that led to a policy decision or institution of a procedure. Archival arrangement facilitates pinpointing responsibility among government officials, and in many ways this is what archives are all about.

But this is not all that archives are about. Introduced to this highly formalized, hierarchical body of organized records is a conceptually oriented researcher, not interested in pinning down isolated facts, but devoted to exploring the broad range of a subject which he deems worthy of study. The metes and bounds of his subject may have no relationship to the organized structure of government. In fact, his interest in the government record may be only a small part of his study, which might also encompass periodical, monographic, and biographical literature, as well as personal papers and official archives. His concept, when superimposed on a body of records, may span a broad range of organizational divisions and time periods. For example, it is one thing to do archival research on the role of the Committee on Fair Employment Practice in World War II; it is quite another to enter the National Archives with a topic such as the social and economic condition of the Afro-American in the New Deal era. In the first case the researcher would receive a copy of Preliminary Inventory No. 147 for the Committee on Fair Employment Practice for Record Group 228. He would then consult the appropriate archivist in the Industrial and Social Records Branch, for help in using the files and suggestions for other sources of information.

A search for records relating to the social and economic condition of the Afro-American in the New Deal era would immediately create two problems. It is likely that New Deal era records would not refer to Afro-Americans in those terms, and it is improbable that agencies in the 1930s would have applied the term "New Deal" to themselves. Interpretation would therefore begin by changing terminology, and would proceed to analyzing federal activity in the field in the 1930s. Archivist and researcher would join in an effort to determine which federal agencies, both civilian and military, had active roles in Negro social and economic conditions. Probably a variety of agencies have dealt with labor, commerce,

agriculture, the armed forces, health, welfare, education, and so on—in fact, one could envision almost every agency being involved in one way or another.

Considering the structuring of an archives as earlier noted, such a conceptual approach could cause the researcher considerable problems. He might want to look at almost all of the inventories of records contemporary with his project in order to assure himself that he is not missing anything. Then he might speak with archivists in most of the branches that he could receive the benefit of their cumulated knowledge. The task would be long and arduous, and under time pressures, the researcher might retreat to more easily used secondary and published documentary sources. This, then, is the question of "the impact of the specialist on archives."

The response to the specialist's needs may seem obvious, but it came about slowly in the archival world. It was to set up projects to analyze archival records in light of certain subject areas. The choice of where to start was not too difficult, because after many years of servicing records, the needs of researchers became apparent. But implementing subject guide projects was not as easy as deciding which ones should have priority. Again, the problem revolved around the need for highly qualified archivists to do the work. One cannot produce a guide to complex records with an untrained staff. The person most logically suited to cover a broad subject area is the senior professional with many years of work in his area of specialization. But because of retirements, shifts to administrative positions, and other natural reasons, such a person is not always on hand. Other considerations then impede.

Instead of producing a guide to records that have traditionally been heavily used, it is occasionally appropriate to anticipate heavy use far enough ahead to begin work on a guide based on future needs. Such a judgment would take an unnatural degree of prognostication on the part of the archivist were it not for the human habit of commemorating past events. Thus, in the 1950s one could assume that the period 1961–65 would produce an outpouring of research on the Civil War, so preparations were made for guides to records relating to the Civil War far enough in advance to answer the projected need. It takes no visionary to predict that a year or two from now historians, journalists, and others will turn to Revolutionary War themes in great numbers, so now is the time to begin work on a guide to records relating to the Revolution. A National Archives Civil War Guide was produced, in two volumes, and work is well underway toward the production of a Revolutionary War guide at the National Archives.

Other conditions, leading to the production of special guides, occasionally prevail. The mere existence of a senior staff member, extraordinarily knowledgeable about a subject or a record group may be sufficient reason to have him produce a special guide before he retires and his knowledge is lost to the researcher. Such was the case with the preparation of a first volume of the Guide to Materials on Latin America in the National Archives. We are far along on a guide to Alaskan material, and hope that it will be finished before the archivist in charge retires. We also have assigned an archivist and are now doing a research on a general guide to records relevant to Black history in the United States.

Thus, the subject specialist has caused the archivist to depart from his traditional descriptive role of inventorying records as they were created, and has led him to describe records, regardless of their sources, which fit a predetermined subject area. This is a step in the right direction for making archives easier to use for some, but it should be clear

that it will never really answer the needs of the research community. Every day a researcher approaches the National Archives with a different conceptual framework into which he is trying to fit the records of the federal government. It is not possible to produce the variety of special guides needed to meet all of the scholar's requirements. It now takes anywhere from three to five years to prepare one special guide.

Some of us have been looking at archivists' methods for creating special guides, and we are becoming suspicious that there may be a better way, which would respond more to researcher needs. Just as one could computerize an entire library card catalog and then automatically search it for terms provided by the researcher—such as title, author, subject headings, and so on—so one could, theoretically, produce an archival data base containing all the tools the archivist now uses to manually produce a conceptual guide. By putting all known or published information about the records into the computer it would then be possible to query the data base through the use of terms relevant to the researcher's subject. These terms might number in the hundreds, and the researcher, who presumably has a better knowledge of his overall subject than the archivist does, should be able to supply the search terms.

This is not fantasy. We are following this procedure now, and have done so for many years. The only difference is that we are bound to a manual instead of an automated system. The archivist writing a guide peruses all of the published and unpublished finding aids, guides, indexes and other materials relating to the records. He has in mind a vast conglomeration of terms relevant to his search. When his mind registers a match in terms, he copies out the entry from the record and adds it to his growing list, which eventually will become the guide. If this menial automatic task can be consigned to a machine, the archivist will be free to sophisticate the search by looking at the actual record and checking out leads that the machine has fed him.

Archivists would then be in a position to render service to the subject specialist in accordance with his needs, rather than tailored to the archivist's work methods.

These halcyon days, needless to say, have not yet arrived. The technology is available, but other resources are not. There has been experimentation in these areas, and we are working toward such goals as the automated production of finding aids at the National Archives at the present time with some success, but on a small scale.

We would not be working on the problem at all if archives were as many theorists say they should be: merely repositories for the records of a corporate body, bastions of moldy antiquities used almost solely for analyzing or verifying activities and events of that corporate body. But the impact of the specialist researcher on archives has removed them from that category and transformed them into dynamic information centers. The challenge of the specialist is causing a minor upheaval among the archival theoreticians of this world, but the modern concept is emerging as the dominant one. It is in the wide dissemination of vast historical information that the future of archives lies.

EUGENE P. SHEEHY

Selected Reference Books of 1971-72

Introduction

This article continues the semiannual series originally edited by Constance M. Winchell. Although it appears under a byline, the list is actually a project of the Reference Department of the Columbia University Libraries, and notes are signed with the initials of the individual staff members.[1]

Since the purpose of the list is to present a selection of recent scholarly and foreign works of interest to reference workers in university libraries, it does not pretend to be either well balanced or comprehensive. Code numbers (such as AA71, 2BD89) have been used to refer to titles in the *Guide to Reference Books* and its supplements.[2]

National Bibliography

Zimmerman, Irene. *Current National Bibliographies of Latin America; a State of the Art Study.* [Gainesville], Center for Latin American Studies, Univ. of Florida, 1971. 139p. $7.00. 73-632969.

Irene Zimmerman, eminent Latin Americanist, here provides a country-by-country account of the available bibliographies of current Latin American publications. This is not an annotated bibliography, but rather "an attempt to describe the major characteristics of each individual situation and the results of what efforts are being made to produce a current record of a given country's publications."—*Introd.* The introduction presents a bibliographic essay about the sources applicable to Latin America as a whole before consideration is given to each country in Part II, "South America," and Part III, "The Caribbean Area." As Ms. Zimmerman defines the term, any published material which can be construed to be of aid in providing a record of a country's publications is part of its comprehensive national bibliography. "If the records include periodicals, government documents, theses, and whatever else a printing press . . . can produce, so much the better."—*Introd.* Thus we find her book an extremely useful and comprehensive guide to bibliographic sources of Latin America. There is a selective bibliography and a good index.—*M.M.*

Book Review Indexes

Internationale Bibliographie der Rezensionen wissenschaftlicher Literatur. Hrsg. von Otto Zeller. Jahrg.1, Halbband 1- . Osnabrück, Dietrich, 1971- . Semiannual? (Jahrg.1, Halbband 1, 4 parts in 3v.)

Title also in English: International bibliography of book reviews of scholarly literature.

Contents: A, Verzeichnis der berücksichtigten Zeitschriften; B, Verzeichnis der Rezensionen nach Schlagwörtern; C, Verzeichnis der Rezensionen nach rezensierten Verfassern; D, Verzeichnis der Rezensionen nach Rezensenten.

This book review index, like its predecessor *Bibliographie der Rezensionen, 1900-43* (*Guide* AA313), is very comprehensive, covering in the first issue about 1700 scholarly journals in more than a dozen languages and in fields as varied as ecumenism and entomology, music and microbiology. Format is that of the related publication, *Internationale Bibliographie der Zeitschriftenliteratur* (*Guide* AF118), and the journals cited in part A are all from its list. This first Halbband lists reviews

[1] Diane Goon, Rita Keckeissen, Eileen McIlvaine, Mary Ann Miller, Janet Schneider, Nancy Schroeder, Barbara Wendell; School of Library Service, Evelyn Lauer.

[2] Constance M. Winchell, *Guide to Reference Books* (8th ed.; Chicago: ALA, 1967); *Supplement I* (Chicago: ALA, 1968); *Supplement II* (Chicago: ALA, 1970).

mainly of 1968–69 books, but includes many from earlier in the decade, and at least one 1960 imprint was noted in spot-checking.

Entry includes author, title, full imprint, and paging of the book; full name of the reviewer; volume, date, and paging of journal (which is cited by key number). Complete information is given in parts B, C, and D. The listing by reviewer, part D, is a useful feature offered by no other general book review index currently published. The work will be an important one in the large library.—*R.K.*

Microforms

Microform Review. v.1, no.1– , Jan. 1972– . Weston, Conn., 1972– . Quarterly. $30 for journal and microfiche eds.; $20.00 for journal ed. only; $20.00 for microfiche ed. only.

Editor Allen B. Veaner and his advisory board of librarians and historians are to be congratulated for founding a journal addressed to the problems which librarians face in intelligently managing the proliferation of materials produced in microform. There is a great need for evaluation of "the acquisitions and servicing effects upon our collections, our bibliographic tools and our public service capabilities." —*v.1, no.1.* The new journal provides a news section for announcements of projects, indexes, and bibliographies, as well as articles of interest to scholars and librarians: "Some Problems of Microform Utilization in Large University Libraries" by C. Edward Carroll, and "Research at the London Public Record Office: a Commentary on British Foreign Office Papers and Other Collections" by Thomas E. Hachey are but two of the articles appearing in the first issue. The long reviews of microform projects are especially helpful; in addition to a description and evaluation, the reviews indicate format, quantity, durability, finding aids, reduction ratio, and replacement policy. From the point of view of the reference librarian one hopes that the journal will offer review articles on older, as well as new, microform collections.—*E.M.*

Encyclopedias

Meyers enzyklopädisches Lexikon. 9., völlig neu bearb. Aufl. Mit 100 signierten Sonderbeiträgen. Mannheim, Bibliographisches Institut, 1971– . v.1– . $24.50 per v. (In progress) 70-873556.

Contents: v.1–3, A–Ber.

This edition, to be in 25 volumes, marks a return to the quality and standards of the long line of encyclopedias bearing the name of Meyer and published in Leipzig from 1840 until the firm's liquidation in 1945. An 8th edition, published 1936–42 and influenced by Nazi ideology, was abandoned after volume 9. *Meyers neues Lexikon* (8 *volumes and supplement,* 1961–67; *Guide* AD38) was published without edition number; it was characterized by numerous short articles with little or no bibliography, and strongly reflected the political orientation of the East German government. While brief entries still abound in this new edition, important topics receive very full treatment, and bibliographies are often extensive and generally up-to-date. Maps and charts accompany country articles, and there are thousands of diagrams and illustrations (both in color and black-and-white), most of them small, but of high quality. Biographical sketches include living persons. Atlas and index volumes are promised, but are optional purchases.—*E.S.*

Language Dictionaries

Baldinger, Kurt. *Dictionnaire étymologique de l'ancien français.* Québec, Les Presses de l'Université Laval, 1971– . fasc.1– . (In progress)

Contents: fasc.1, G[1] (Gaaignepain-Garder). $14.00.

Although students of Old French already have at their disposal a range of excellent dictionaries, notably Godefroy's *Dictionnaire de l'ancienne langue française,* the Tobler-Lommatzsch *Altfranzösisches Wörterbuch* and Wartburg's monumental *Französisches etymologisches Wörterbuch* (*Guide* AE246, AE250 and AE239, respectively), this one offers advantages that wholly justify its publication. It is based on Wartburg, but since it is restricted to the vocabulary of the mid ninth to mid fourteenth centuries, it is able to present

each work in greater detail. It is arranged not by etymon, as is Wartburg, but by the basic word of each etymological family, so that even a beginner without previous knowledge of French etymology can easily consult the dictionary. It is broader in scope than Tobler-Lommatzsch (which covers only the literary language), and attempts to correct the many inaccuracies of Godefroy. Attestations and lexical sources are carefully documented.

A note on the publishing schedule: the dictionary will take at least ten years to complete and will appear at the rate of two fascicules a year. G–Z will be issued first, then A–F, in order to take advantage of the revision that is now underway for the first part of the Wartburg work. Information contained in the "DEAF" will then be used to compile more specialized dictionaries, such as a "Dictionnaire inverse de l'ancien français" and a "Dictionnaire onomasiologique de l'ancien français." An abridged edition is also planned.—*N.S.*

Periodicals

Woodworth, David. *Guide to Current British Journals.* London, Library Assoc., 1970. 269p. £5. 74-590487.

"Designed as a quick reference source for speedy identification, and publication details, of British journals" *(Introd.),* this work is arranged in classed subject order with an abbreviated UDC notation assigned to the headings. Although concerned with British publications (i.e., journals published in England, Wales, Scotland, N. Ireland, and the Channel Islands), some "important" journals from the Irish Republic are included. Entries are numbered sequentially, and the title/subject index is keyed to these numbers. In effect, this is a new edition of the 1962 *Guide to Current British Periodicals* by Mary Toase (*Guide* AF49).

Entries include the standard information (title, date of first issue, frequency, publisher, features such as book reviews, etc.), but they are difficult to read without frequent referral to the explanatory notes. The last element of an entry seems somewhat superfluous: including the date of the issue examined by the compiler may be an admirable attempt at documentation, but it doesn't appreciably add to the utility of the directory. A useful feature is the indication of indexing in the standard British indexes and the *IBZ;* an appendix lists titles which carry abstracts.—*B.W.*

Biography

Klein, Donald W., and Clark, Anne B. *Biographic Dictionary of Chinese Communism, 1921–1965.* Cambridge, Mass., Harvard Univ. Pr., 1971. 2v. $30. 69-12725.

The authors are to be commended for this detailed work relating the lives of the men who made the greatest impact on the Communist movement in China from 1921 to 1965. Of the 433 major biographies, 422 were written by Klein and Clark. Nearly half of the entries are for persons elected to the Central Committee at the Seventh Party Congress in 1945 and those elected at the first and second sessions of the Eighth Party Congress (1956–58). The remaining entries comprise "martyrs," key military figures, prominent officials, and other representative leaders.

These scholarly biographies portray a man's specific organizational connections with revolutionary parties, highlight significant events in his career, and cite major speeches and writings. Bibliographic notes indicate further sources, mainly in the English language. Frequent references to other entries serve to integrate accounts of important events and organizations. The ninety-six appendices, concerned with both personal and organizational data, include information on an additional 600 persons. The "glossary-name index" (which includes Chinese characters) lists all the names in the appendices and those mentioned in the biographic sketches as well as the names of the major biographees. This valuable aid will be welcomed by scholars, journalists, government officials, and others interested in the history of the Chinese Communist Party. Along with the *Biographical Dictionary of Republican China* (*Suppl.* 2AJ14) it provides much useful material on modern China—*J.S.*

Notable American Women, 1607–1950; a Biographical Dictionary. Edward T. James, ed. Cambridge, Mass., Belknap

Pr. of Harvard Univ. Pr., 1971. 3v. $60.00. 76-152274.

Sponsored by Radcliffe College, this long-awaited work constitutes a record of more than three hundred years of women's history in America. Modeled on the *DAB* (*Guide* AJ32), it is an alphabetical arrangement of 1,377 biographical sketches ranging up to ten pages in length, by writers "with special knowledge of the subject or her field."—*Pref.* The criterion for inclusion is stated as "distinction in [a woman's] own right of more than local significance." The one exception made is the inclusion of the Presidents' wives regardless of their own qualifications. Like the *DAB,* the dictionary interprets "American" in a broad sense; unlike the *DAB,* it has not used conventional respectability as a necessary ingredient of "distinction." Selection was limited to women who died no later than the end of 1950, and few active careers extend beyond 1920. Bibliographies and notes on sources follow each sketch; articles are signed in full, sometimes by well-known scholars, but no list of the more than 700 contributors is given. Both the interesting introduction by Janet Wilson James (surveying the history of women in America) and the classified list of biographies in volume 3 should prove useful. Excellence of the work raises hope that Radcliffe will plan supplementary volumes.—*R.K.*

Philosophy

Vasoli, Cesare, ed. *Il pensiero medievale; orientamenti bibliografici.* Bari, Laterza, [1971]. 301p. L.1200.

Addressed to the student of medieval thought, this bibliographic guide covers the major and minor writers, themes, and problems of medieval philosophy from Boethius through the fourteenth century, the greater portion, of course, devoted to the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. For each author treated, works are identified, editions cited, and important critical studies (books, journal articles, and contributions to *Festschriften*) are given; there are many annotations. In the case of major authors for whom extensive specialized bibliography exists, a few of the most important older critical works are cited, but emphasis in these sections is on significant recent materials. The editor has been at pains to include traditionally "minor" figures who in recent years have been the subject of scholarly attention. A detailed table of contents substitutes for an analytic index.—*R.K.*

Religion

Berlin, Charles, comp. *Index to Festschriften in Jewish Studies.* Cambridge, Harvard College Library; N.Y., Ktav, 1971. 319p. $29.50. 72-138460.

The first index to *Festschriften* in Jewish studies since 1937, this useful new tool lists 6700 articles in 243 jubilee volumes, all of them in the Harvard collection. It covers primarily those *Festschriften* devoted entirely to Jewish history and literature of all periods and places, supplementing Marcus and Bilgray's index (*Guide* BB 287) both by using 1937 as the starting date for coverage and by including pre-1936 volumes not in the earlier work. *Festschriften* indexed were published in monographic series, as separates, and as special issues of periodicals. Many languages are represented, with Hebrew accounting for a large proportion of articles. Part I of the *Index* is an alphabetic author list of the essays, with paging, and *Festschrift* source indicated by name of person in whose honor published. Part II is a subject arrangement of the articles, alphabetic according to headings adapted from the Harvard *List of Subject Headings Used in the Public Catalog* (1964). Preceding Part I is the "List of *Festschriften* Indexed," arranged by name of person or institution honored, and with full bibliographical details.—*R.K.*

Encyclopaedia Judaica. Jerusalem, [Keter Publ. House; N.Y.], Macmillan, [1972]. 16v. il. $500. 72-90254.

Noteworthy as the first Jewish encyclopedia of major proportions to be published in several decades, this scholarly work has been completely compiled and published within five years. The monumental task of producing an English-language encyclopedia providing "a comprehensive picture of all aspects of Jewish life and knowledge up to the present" *(Introd.)* was accomplished by 300 editors and 1800 con-

tributors, and its publication history and that of its predecessors is interestingly detailed in the introduction. In that section the editors describe the formulation of their editorial policy and the method of compilation; inconsistencies have not only been admitted, they have been enumerated.

The index to the *Encyclopaedia* has been designated as volume 1 in order to emphasize its central importance to the work. That volume includes the introductory material, listings of editors and their vitas, and a key to contributors' initials. Aids such as transliteration tables (for Hebrew, Yiddish, Arabic, Greek, and Russian alphabets) and supplementary lists of Israel place names and of Hebrew newspapers and periodicals serve to make the first volume a ready reference tool.

Most of the 25,000 articles are signed, with relatively short bibliographies appended; emphasis in the latter is on English-language sources (even if they are translations of classic works). The editors state that standard histories and older encyclopedias must be consulted in many cases, but owing to space considerations these are cited only when they provide "material of special significance." The volumes are well-designed and attractively bound, and the set will be a welcome addition to any library having need of a valuable twentieth-century view of world Jewry.—*B.W.*

The Interpreter's One-Volume Commentary on the Bible. Charles M. Laymon, ed. Nashville, Abingdon Pr., [1971]. 1386p. $17.50. 71-144392.

Scholars throughout the English-speaking world have participated in this effort to provide a guide to Bible interpretation for "ministers, lay, and non-professional persons engaged in studying or teaching in the church school, college students, and those who are unequipped to follow the more specialized discussions of biblical matters."—*Editor's Pref.* Based on the Revised Standard Version of the Bible, the lengthy, signed commentaries on the Old and New Testaments and the Apocrypha constitute the major portion of the book. These are followed by a series of general articles on biblical interpretation, geographical and historical setting, text, canon, and translation and impact of the Bible. There is a chronology, an explanation of moneys and measures, an index of scripture references, and a series of full-color maps.

The introduction to each commentary discusses the book's historical setting, sources, authorship and date, structure, point of view, etc., and concludes with a bibliography (sometimes critically annotated) of English-language sources; English translations from works in other languages are often noted. The commentaries themselves vary widely in both style and content, though the high level of scholarship and balanced point of view are evident throughout. The editors may have presumed a wider audience than will actually prove to be the case; the work is not adapted to quick reference use or casual skimming by the general reader. But as a scholarly guide for the serious student, it is a worthy addition to the "Interpreter's family" of biblical reference works.—*D.G.*

Williams, Ethel L., and Brown, Clifton L., comps. *Afro-American Religious Studies: A Comprehensive Bibliography with Locations in American Libraries.* Metuchen, N.J., Scarecrow Pr., 1972. 454p. $12.50. 78-166072.

Compiled in response to the "pressing need for a comprehensive bibliographical guide for sources in the area of African and Afro-American religious studies" *(Pref.)*, this long list of books and articles (about 6000 entries) published over a broad span of time will be useful both for identifying and locating materials. There are five main sections in the classified arrangement: "African Heritage," "Christianity and Slavery in the New World," "The American Negro and the American Religious Life," "The Civil Rights Movement," and "The Contemporary Religious Scene." These, in turn, are divided and subdivided by topic, by country, and by church or sect as appropriate. The detailed table of contents which substitutes for an analytic index should be studied for maximum use. Within a sub-section entries are arranged alphabetically by author; full bibliographical information is given, and at least one location noted. There are appendices of periodical titles, manuscript collections and sources consulted, and an author index.—*R.K.*

LITERATURE

Jahn, Janheinz, and Dressler, Claus Peter. *Bibliography of Creative African Writing.* Nendeln, [Liechtenstein], Kraus-Thomson, 1971. 446p. $27.50. 70-154142.

Borrowing the term "Agisymba" from Ptolemy, the compilers note that this bibliography intends to include the creative literature of all "Agisymba" or "Black Africa"—a concept not easily defined by mere geographical or racial boundaries. For example: "In South Africa the racial law clearly separates 'Bantu' and 'European' literature. In Angola and Mozambique, however, racial lines could not be drawn. Thus all writers who call themselves Angolese or Mozambikans, even though some were born in Portugal, . . . were included."—*Introd.*

The work is both an expansion and updating of the African section of Jahn's *Bibliography of Neo-African Literature* (*Suppl.* 1BD3), and is restricted to books and to plays which have been performed on stage; only selected secondary literature relating to the creative works is cited. The compilers have devised a rather complex system of notations, work numbers, abbreviations, etc., in an effort to make the bibliography reflect certain things about the literature which may be of interest to the scholar. For the research worker venturing into these largely uncharted regions this should be a welcome guide. Let him acquaint himself with the "Instructions for Use," however, before he begins; it will be time well spent.—*M.M.*

Köttelwesch, Clemens. *Bibliographisches Handbuch der deutschen Literaturwissenschaft, 1945–1969.* Frankfurt am Main, V. Klostermann, 1971– . Lfg.1– . DM 36.50 per Lfg. (In progress)

This is the first installment of a projected set of about ten volumes that will presumably cumulate and supplement Eppelscheimer and Köttelwesch's *Bibliographie der deutschen Literaturwissenschaft* (*Guide* BD562). It will be a select bibliography of works on German literature—books, articles, contributions to collections, theses, and reprints of books originally published before 1945—drawing principally on French and English sources to augment the German listings; however, Russian, Polish, Dutch, and Italian sources are at least represented. A wide range of journals is indexed, covering not only literature, but related materials in history, philosophy, and religion. The subject arrangement is so refined that it is not at all difficult to find articles on specific topics, even though there will be no author or subject index until the set is complete. There are no annotations, but full bibliographic information is provided.—*N.S.*

Lang, David Marshall, ed. *A Guide to Eastern Literatures.* London, Weidenfield and Nicolson, [1971]. 501p. £4.25. 75-866509.

Thanks to this admirable guide, Eastern literatures need no longer be inscrutable to the Western reader, for here he has ready access to the historical and social background, the individual works, and the interpretation of eighteen Oriental literatures. "Oriental" and "Eastern" are not limited to a geographical interpretation: Jewish, Armenian, Georgian, and Ethiopic literatures are discussed, as well as Arabic, Indian, Chinese, and Japanese. The chapter on each literature includes historical background, a survey of the main literary trends, a brief description of individual authors and their works, and a general bibliography; available English translations are noted. There is an index of authors, titles, and subjects.

Mr. Lang has done fine editorial work in making a cohesive whole of so many parts; only the Indian and Pakistani literature section seems too brief in its notes on individual authors. Overall, the quality of the essays (by scholar specialists) is high, and that on Japanese literature is excellent.—*D.G.*

Rees, Robert A., and Harbert, Earl N., eds. *Fifteen American Authors Before 1900; Bibliographic Essays on Research and Criticism.* Madison, Univ. of Wisconsin Pr., [1971]. 442p. $12.50. 77-157395.

Woodress, James, ed. *Eight American Authors; a Review of Research and Criticism.* Rev. ed. N.Y., Norton, [1972]. 392p. $11.95. 73-160485.

By a happy coincidence, Rees and Harbert's new volume appears almost simul-

taneously with the new edition of *Eight American Authors,* a work whose plan and purpose it emulates. Now, with these two volumes and Jackson Bryer's *Fifteen Modern American Authors* (Durham, 1969), we have good, reasonably up-to-date assessments of research and criticism of a substantial number of major American literary figures.

In the Rees-Harbert work individual scholars have contributed bibliographic essays on Henry Adams, William Cullen Bryant, James Fenimore Cooper, Stephen Crane, Emily Dickinson, Jonathan Edwards, Benjamin Franklin, Oliver Wendell Holmes, William Dean Howells, Washington Irving, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, James Russell Lowell, Frank Norris, Edward Taylor, and John Greenleaf Whittier. In addition, there are survey chapters on the literature of the old South and of the New South. The Woodress volume again treats Poe, Emerson, Hawthorne, Thoreau, Melville, Whitman, Twain, and Henry James. Some of the essays are by the same contributors as to the 1956 edition by Floyd Stovall (*Guide* BD220), whereas others have been written by new scholar specialists. Attention is given to published bibliographies, editions, biographies, and critical studies. Both volumes are indexed.—*E.S.*

Russkie pisateli; biobibliograficheskii slovar. Moskva, Prosveshchenie, 1971. 728p. 3r., 1k.

This attractive volume contains about 300 biographies of Russian writers from the medieval period to the early twentieth century. The signed articles, which range in length from half a page to fourteen pages (for Tolstoi), emphasize the subject's literary career and the place of his works in the history of Russian literature. Brief bibliographies at the end of each biography list the most recent editions of the authors' works, as well as a selection of books and articles about them. Almost all references are to Russian-language publications, some as recent as 1969. Coverage of relatively minor figures is better than in the *Bol'shaia sovetskaia entsiklopediia* (*Guide* AD 60) or the *Literaturnaia entsiklopediia* (*Guide* BD903). Since the articles are evaluative as well as factual, the dictionary is particularly interesting to American students as an expression of the current Soviet opinion of the writers included.—*N.S.*

Starnawski, Jerzy. *Warszat bibliograficzny historyka literatury polskiej (na tle dyscyplin pokrewnych).* [Wyd.2. Warszawa], Państwowe Wydawnictwo Nawkowe, [1971]. 562p. zł. 80.

The unique quality of this work lies in its being a compendium of bibliographic essays dealing with a whole range of subjects that might be of use or interest to the literary historian. Coverage is very wide, ranging from the obvious for a work of this type (history of bibliography, literary bibliography, lexicography, philology) to the truly tangential (ethnography, science, education, philosophy). A sophisticated tool geared to the use of graduate students and scholars, its emphasis is on Polish culture, but the comparative view is encouraged by several sections devoted to western literature and frequent mention throughout of foreign publications, institutions, and activities. The most recent citations are dated 1969, while retrospectively the work has no specific cut-off date. An interesting observation on editorial policy is the relative absence of reference to materials from the postwar Stalinist era. Access to the contents of the handbook is through a very detailed table of contents and an index of names and anonymous titles.—*E.L.*

Stratman, Carl Joseph; Spencer, David G.; and Devine, Mary Elizabeth. *Restoration and Eighteenth Century Theatre Research: a Bibliographical Guide, 1900–1968.* Carbondale, Ill., Southern Illinois Univ. Pr., [1971]. 811p. $25.00. 71-112394.

In 1969 Father Stratman and associates published *Restoration and 18th Century Research Bibliography, 1961–1968,* a cumulation of the annual bibliographies appearing in the journal *Restoration and 18th Century Theatre Research.* This new publication, a cooperative effort of a group of scholars, extends the period of coverage backward to provide a comprehensive listing of twentieth-century research in the field. Spot-checking indicates that the earlier bibliography is effectively superseded, with some revisions and improvements in

matters of classification. As in the earlier work, an alphabetical subject arrangement is employed, but within subject categories the listing is now chronological by date of publication. In all, there are more than 6,500 entries under some 780 subject headings. An index of names (both as authors and as subject) is provided, but in virtually microscopic print. The 1968 closing date in the title is deceptive (evidently referring to publication date of the journal bibliography which will continue to serve as a supplement) since coverage in all categories checked is through 1967 only.—*E.S.*

Zell, Hans M., and Silver, Helene, comps. *A Reader's Guide to African Literature*. N.Y., Africana Pub. Corp., [1971]. 218p. il. $7.50. 76-83165.

A valuable addition to the growing reference collection on creative African literature, this work consists of annotated bibliographies (mainly of in-print titles) and a biographical dictionary of contemporary black African authors from south of the Sahara who write in English or French. The main section, an author bibliography of fiction, drama, poetry, and criticism, is subdivided into (1) English works, and (2) French or English translations from French; each part is arranged by country, then alphabetically by author. Entries are serially numbered, and give author, title, full imprint, paging, and price. Descriptive annotations often include quotations from critical reviews, together with citations to their sources. There are other annotated lists of bibliographies, critical works, anthologies, children's books, "Politically Committed Literature in English" compiled by Gideon-Cyrus M. Mutiso, and "Some Articles on African Literature" contributed by Barbara Abrash. Fifty-one biographical sketches of important African authors form the second part of the book. An index adds to usefulness.—*R.K.*

Social Sciences

Mitchell, Brian R., and Jones, H. G. *Second Abstract of British Historical Statistics*. Cambridge, [Eng.], University Pr., 1971. 227p. $11.50. 72-128502.

Although Mitchell and Deane's *Abstract of British Historical Statistics* (*Guide* CG 108) appeared in 1962, most of the tables in that volume did not extend beyond 1938. This new compilation is meant to serve as a continuation of the earlier volume "and so far as possible series for 1938 onwards are linked to those given in that work; but it is also a supplement containing new series."—*Pref.* These latter series not only include new tables for data not recorded before 1938, but also some from earlier periods which had to be omitted from the 1962 volume. Sources of the statistics are cited, but bibliographies were deemed unnecessary for the post-1938 period and references to secondary studies are only occasionally given in the introductory notes to the sections.—*E.S.*

Population Index Bibliography; Cumulated 1935–1968, by Authors and Geographical Areas. Boston, G. K. Hall, 1971. 9v. $745.

Contents: Author index, 1935–1968, 4v.; Geographical index, 5v. (v.1–3, 1935–1954; v.4–5, 1954–1968).

The Office of Population Research at Princeton has maintained card files of the bibliographic entries published in *Population Index* (*Guide* CG13) since 1935. These files, one for authors, another for geographical and topical entries, have been photographed and published in book form with very little editing. Of the two divisions, the author index will require the more cautious use. Here an item is cited only once, so one finds no added entries for joint authors or for individuals responsible for publications issued by institutions. The entry itself may also pose a problem, for names were not standardized and different transliteration schemes, for example, have sometimes been used for the same name. In the geographical index entries are arranged by continent, then by country or region, with further subdivision by topics if there are more than 100 entries. A detailed table of contents or the use of running heads would have greatly facilitated searching. A further word of caution: in 1955 the classification system was reworked, and the geographical volumes are in two sequences: 1935–54 and 1954–68.

Despite reservations, the librarian and the researcher will be pleased by the time-

saving advantage of the cumulation, for the editors have interpreted population studies broadly and have indexed material of interest to all social scientists. Libraries will, of course, want to retain the original volumes of *Population Index*, since these include valuable survey articles, tables, and special studies which are indexed in the cumulated bibliography.—*E.M.*

History and Area Studies

Griffin, Charles C., ed. *Latin America; a Guide to the Historical Literature.* Austin, Publ. for the Conference on Latin American History by Univ. of Texas Pr., [1971]. 700p. $25.00. 71-165916.

A selective, scholarly bibliography of Latin American history, "the aim [of this guide] has been to give those who are beginning the serious study of Latin American history a basic tool of research that will introduce them to the most important sources and histories."—*Introd.* In addition to more recent materials, the work is designed to cover historiographical writings predating the inception of the *Handbook of Latin American Studies* in 1935; the *Handbook* must, of course, still be consulted to supplement and update this guide.

Entries are grouped in seven chapters, without cross references. Topical chapters of reference works, general items which do not fit into the other sections, and basic background works of precolonial history precede the most important sections on "Colonial Latin America," "Independence," and "Latin America since Independence." Here entries are arranged chronologically within geographic area. A final chapter deals with materials on inter-Hispanic American relations since 1830. Compilation has been a cooperative effort of many scholars, and descriptive annotations are generally written by the editor of each chapter. Coverage is through 1966 and includes books, periodicals, and periodical articles. The detailed table of contents serves in lieu of a subject index; an author index is provided. This is a useful compilation for the researcher in Latin American history.—*J.S.*

Higham, Robin, ed. *A Guide to the Sources of British Military History.* Berkeley, Univ. of California Pr., 1971. 630p. $22.50. 74-104108.

"Sponsored by the Conference on British Studies."—*title page.*

Twenty-five scholar specialists have here contributed bibliographic essays on the whole range of British military history from earliest times to the present. Attention is given to general histories, bibliographies, selected special studies, and sources. Each chapter includes a section on research opportunities, pointing out areas where initial research is needed or where reappraisals are in order. Mention is also made of archives and special collections of papers and documents, with suggestions on how to obtain access to them. There is no general index, but since full citations to the works discussed appear in a numbered sequence at the end of each essay (and are referred to by numbers in the text) a bibliographic search is not really difficult. There is a wealth of material here for the historian in this field.—*E.S.*

Nunn, Godfrey Raymond. *Asia: a Selected and Annotated Guide to Reference Works.* Cambridge, Mass., M.I.T. Pr., 1971. 223p. $12.50. 77-169004.

In this "first attempt to present . . . a selection of the whole [reference] literature on Asia, without distinction as to place of publication, language of publication or language of materials surveyed" *(Pref.)* the compiler has emphasized English-language sources for modern Asia. Thus, two-thirds of the 975 titles are in English, with the remainder in Japanese, Chinese, and in other western languages. Materials dealing with the Near East and Soviet Asia are not included. The cut-off date for publications was Fall 1970.

A geographical approach is used, providing an interesting comparative review of the reference sources for each country. Encyclopedias, handbooks, directories, yearbooks, dictionaries, statistical sources, atlases, gazetteers and chronologies are noted. The annotations are excellent—clear, concise, and often critical. Future editions would be enhanced by the inclusion of more titles in the humanities; there is a particular dearth of fine arts sources. Also, access to entries would be made more

direct by a subject approach in the index. —*D.G.*

Sedgwick, Romney. *The House of Commons, 1715–1754.* Publ. for the History of Parliament Trust. N.Y., Oxford Univ. Pr.; London, H.M.S.O., 1970. 2v. $70.00. 79-591358.

At head of title: The History of Parliament.

Contents: v.1, Introductory survey, appendices, constituencies, Members A-D; v.2, Members E-Z.

This second installment of the proposed biographic history of the Westminster Parliament from 1264 to the present closely resembles the previously-published (1964; *Guide* CI129) *House of Commons, 1754–1790* by the late Sir Lewis Namier and John Brooke. Due to the different political situation the introductory surveys have here been changed to include an account of procedure and descriptions of the Whig government and that of the Tories; an index for these sections is included. Various appendices are followed by a section on constituencies which indicates the number of voters in each county, names of elected officials, and brief notes on local politics.

The remainder of the work is devoted to biographies of the Members of the House of Commons for the period. Limitations of time and space resulted in primarily political biographies. Basic details of each Member's life and career plus a brief survey of his political activity in Parliament constitute an entry. Flaws can always be found, such as the lack of cross references either to the Namier-Brooke volumes or to the introductory surveys, but viewed as a whole this is a carefully edited work of great value, especially for its treatment of lesser known men. Entries are signed and reference sources are noted.—*J.S.*

History of Science

Isis. *Isis Cumulative Bibliography; a Bibliography of the History of Science Formed from Isis Critical Bibliographies 1–90, 1913–65.* Magda Whitrow, ed. [London], Mansell in conjunction with the History of Science Society, 1971. 2v. £28.

Contents: v.1, Personalities, A–J; v.2, Personalities, K–Z and Institutions, A–Z.

These two volumes are the first parts of a larger project which will provide various subject approaches to the listings appearing in the "critical bibliographies" published in the periodical *Isis*, 1913–65. "Part I: *Personalities* contains, in alphabetical sequence, entries (references to books, monographs, pamphlets, and articles) dealing with the life and work of an individual . . . and also new editions of his work. . . . Part II: *Institutions* contains entries dealing with the history and work of institutions and societies."—*Introd.* While it does not purport to be a fully comprehensive guide to the literature of the history of science, the compilation probably provides more extensive and detailed coverage than is available elsewhere. (A few significant omissions were corrected, but no concentrated effort was made to fill gaps.) Explanatory or descriptive notes accompany some citations, and reviews of books are frequently noted.

In the further parts planned, entries will be arranged first by periods and civilizations, subdivided by subject, and finally according to topical subjects. The work will also serve as an analytical index to *Isis* itself, since during most of its history articles in that magazine have been treated in the critical bibliographies.—*E.S.*

Symbols

Shepherd, Walter. *Shepherd's Glossary of Graphic Signs and Symbols.* London, Dent; New York, Dover, 1971. 597p. $15.00. 71-16884.

An immensely comprehensive and meticulous work, the fruit of 23 years of labor, this volume gains and suffers by being organized in a series of tables—more than 400 of them—which follow affinity of shape, not the particular topics of abbreviation. Once one has mastered the process of interrogation, one is able to locate wholly unfamiliar symbols even if no clue is provided by the context; but it is exasperating to know to what category the symbol belongs, and still have to run it down through an elaborate analysis of its curves, lines, and dots. A topically arranged appendix gives alphabetical lists of the more important signs of the various disciplines. It

might have doubled the length of the book, but halved the expense of time and patience, to have included complete lists of each set of symbols. Researchers in a familiar, well-defined area of study will probably find specialized dictionaries such as those edited by David D. Polon (*Suppl.* 1EI12, 1EG2) easier to use. Readers who encounter a mysterious symbol in an unfamiliar context, however, may well find that Shepherd's book, covering topics that range from botany to pottery marks to Arabic script, is the only one that can answer their need.—*N.S.*

Letters

To the Editor:

"Participative Management or Unionization?" These are not mutually exclusive if the bargaining unit of the faculty includes librarians.

Hans E. Panofsky
Curator and President
Assembly of Librarians
Northwestern University Library

To the Editor:

I have just read Mr. De Gennaro's editorial "Participative Management or Unionzation?" So, what else is new?!

May I welcome Mr. De Gennaro to the 20th Century?

Ted Alezizos
An Idealistic Associate
University Librarian
Harvard University Library

To the Editor:

Charles Martell's discussion of management theories (*CRL,* Mar. 1972) strikes home: a basic fact of administrative theories is that they work only so far—and never when they are needed most! However, I was disappointed that Martell should limit his discussion to the McGregor and Blake theories.

Clare W. Graves introduces a too-little known theory of personality behavior in "Deterioration of Work Standards" (*Harvard Business Review,* Sept.-Oct. 1966, p. 117–28). Graves believes that different individuals can be identified as falling into seven levels of human existence and that, at each level, a completely different set of motivations, values, and expectations occur. Hence, a theory of management which seems ideally suited for handling one person simply doesn't apply to another person.

A disadvantage inherent in Graves' theory is that not everyone can see different persons in a multilevel set of existences: to the authoritarian person only authority has any meaning or validity; the gregarious teamworker finds the loner equally inexplicable. Perhaps this is why Graves' work, although well accepted in some limited circles, is generally not well known or understood.

Larry Auld
Head, Technical Services
William Jasper Kerr Library
Oregon State University

To the Editor:

It is always with interest that I read articles and question librarians regarding the cost of duplicating cards on the Xerox and so I was happy to see James F. Anderson's article "Break-Even Point for a Proof Slip Operation" in the March issue. However, I was sad to see that his article gave no definite answers regarding labor costs or actual man hours used in reproduction. These are figures I have been unable to get from almost all librarians I have questioned regarding the cost of Xeroxing cards. Anderson "assumed that his [operator] time is offset by the time saved by typing the call number on the proof slip . . . eliminating the typing of the call number on each card in the complete set." He makes no effort to prove his assumption and he says nothing about labor time involved in cutting or tearing cards apart, sorting cards into sets, and time spent cleaning the machine. I would challenge the assumption that all this labor time equals the time to type four call numbers—and if his assumption is incorrect, his formula is not valid.

Anderson also states that there are three constants in his formula, one of which is the cost of Xeroxing a complete set of cards. The last rental costs I have from the local Xerox office, which was about a year ago, quoted a flat monthly rental for which an organization could get 3,000 copies per month; or, on another plan the organization could get 7,500 copies per month for 3 cents per copy, 7,501–20,000 per month for .026 and over 20,000 per month for

.020. While it is true that there might be variation in amounts depending on area, I have never heard Xerox costs described in any way except per copy or monthly rental fee. If Anderson knows of a different way of pricing, I would be happy to know about it. In line with my local quotations, in Anderson's example he could not qualify for the 7,500 per month since for 4,222 titles per year he will have with 6 cards up 704 units, run 5 times each or 3,520 copies per *year*. With 5 cards up he will have 1,056 units, run 5 times or 5,280 copies per *year*. At my local quoted monthly rental rate, spreading the cost of 4,222 titles out over the entire year, the cost per card would be more than 5 cents per card for rental costs alone. It must be remembered that Anderson states that "the reproduction of catalog cards from proof slips must defray the entire cost of the Xerox 914." It would be helpful to know if Anderson plans to rent his Xerox machine for one month to do his 4,222 titles per year; or, how he arrived at the .01 constant for his library for Xerox costs. According to my local information from the Xerox company, Xeroxing costs per copy depend on the number of copies reproduced and therefore becomes a variable and not a constant. Obviously if Xerox costs are a variable and not a constant, Anderson's formula is not valid.

Another reason I would question Anderson's figures is that there is a nonprofit, cooperative library project which reproduces catalog cards for any library at a cost of 3 cents per card. True, users may be defraying some overhead costs but the project is producing in great volume and hence Xerox costs would be cheaper.

Anderson must prove that Xeroxing costs, including *all* labor costs of reproduction, is a constant before his formula is valid.

Christina Landram
Head, Catalog Department
Georgia State University Library

Recent Publications

BOOK REVIEWS

Dewey, Melvil. ***Dewey Decimal Classification and Relative Index.*** 18th ed. Lake Placid Club, N.Y.: Forest Press, 1971. 3v. viii, 2692p.

If "Dewey is Dead," the corpse is mighty lively. With zest it heeds the ancient command: "Be fruitful and multiply." Father Melvil's pamphlet of 1876 in this, its eighteenth generation, boasts three fat volumes. In the words of the black box: You've come a long way, baby, to get where you are today.

Volume 1 opens with introductory material: Godfrey Dewey's brief memorial to his father (*LJ* Dec. 1, 1951); a statement by the Forest Press of DDC history, ownership, editorial, and publishing arrangements; a short and helpful Preface by Frances Hinton, Chairman DCEPC; a thorough Editor's Introduction, useful as always, by Benjamin A. Custer; a Glossary; an Index to Preface, Editor's Introduction, and Glossary; and the usual filial reprint of Dewey's Introduction to Dewey 12.

But the bulk of Volume 1 is given over to the "Tables." Although they are auxiliary tables to be used in building numbers, they are now called simply "Tables" while the main classification schedules, formerly referred to as "tables" or "general tables," are now officially called "Schedules." There are seven Tables: 1. Standard Subdivisions; 2. Areas; 3. Subdivisions of Individual Literatures (used throughout 810–899); 4. Subdivisions of Individual Languages (used throughout 420–499); 5. Racial, Ethnic, National Groups; 6. Languages (used where numbers were formerly divided like 420–490); 7. Persons (used wherever numbers were formerly divided like 001–999 or 920.1–928.9). Thus, with the Tables, "divide like" becomes simply "add to." A few pages at the end of Volume 1 contain lists applying to the schedules: 1. Relocations and Discontinued Numbers; 2. Three-figure Numbers not in Use; and 3. Summaries.

Volume 2 consists of the Schedules, including discontinued and unused numbers and two completely new "Phoenix" Schedules 340 Law and 510 Mathematics. Volume 3 consists of the Relative Index, and (to help in reclassifying to the Phoenix Schedules) the obsolescent schedules 340 and 510 reprinted for the last time along with Tables of Concordance showing "the correct class numbers from editions 17 and 18 for a substantial list of legal and mathematical topics."

Thus, more than ever before, Dewey is a number building device rather than a mere list of numbers. The three elements of number building (tables, schedules, and index) are each in a single volume and the classifier can have all volumes open before him as he works—no need to shuffle through many pages in a single volume any more.

Apart from the Phoenix Schedules, there are 396 relocations, less than half as many as in Dewey 17 and one-fourth as many as in Dewey 16. The promise of Dewey 17 (p.46) still holds: "A reasonable amount of continuing change through relocation is not only desirable but inevitable." The war against the WASP continues in such things as the Area Table relocation of Indonesia, the Philippines, etc. from "Oceania" to "Asia" and the Editor's Introduction suggestions about optional provisions (p.27) and devices for giving more emphasis to "minor" subjects (p.49 ff.).

A modern classification, but a classification without jargon, Dewey 18 may be intricate now and then but it is never beyond understanding even though we may not agree with every detail it provides.

Perhaps the chief question about Dewey 18 lies outside the book itself. Use of Dewey 18 on LC cards began January 1, 1971, but Dewey 18 was not published till late in the year. Thus for many months

libraries were expected to use classification numbers which they could understand only to the extent that DDC *Additions, Notes and Decisions* Spring 1971 rather skimpily explained them. Does Dewey 18 thus suggest that library classification, like library cataloging, has ceased to be a cottage industry with a classifier in every library? Has library classification, instead, become a manufacturing monopoly requiring intelligent and imaginative classifiers at the factories but only skilled technicians to install the ready-made product in individual libraries?—*Paul S. Dunkin, Professor Emeritus, Rutgers University*

Gilroy, Marion, and Rothstein, Samuel, eds. ***As We Remember It: Interviews with Pioneering Librarians of British Columbia.*** Vancouver: University of British Columbia, School of Librarianship, 1970. 163p.

"I was on the library staff, in Hamilton [Ontario]. Well, I was the third part of the librarian. There were three of us taken on as one person, and we had to work one week in three and stay by the other two weeks in case somebody had a headache or was away. We supplied in turn. We got five dollars a week for this . . . every week we worked."

This is Muriel Ffoulkes speaking of her first library position, back in 1915 or 1916, when librarianship in Canada was still very young, back when the first library school in Toronto opened its doors, "not under the auspices of the University, of course. Mr. Carson was the Inspector of Public Libraries. He started this school, and I was one of four sent down from the Hamilton library. And it was there that I met Lillian H. Smith. . . ." Thus Muriel Ffoulkes remembers, and recounts her memories to Marion Gilroy and to posterity in this charming record of the pioneering days of librarianship in British Columbia and in Canada.

No scholarly history this. The interviews are printed just as they were taped, for "The interviews recorded here by and large stand quite well by themselves, and it has not been felt that an extensive editorial commentary was needed." The result has all the casual frankness ("Muriel Page, a librarian from Toronto, was chosen." "You know her?" "Yes, I seem to remember her. She was an awful pest."); all the warm emotion ("Essae May Culver was head of the whole state library programme, and she was a splendid person."); and, unfortunately, some of the infuriating vagueness (" . . . our headquarters were in Vernon, but they had a rather sticky situation there, too, and I think if we had just had a little longer there, we could have fixed it up.") of an after dinner conversation.

Certainly no scholarly history; but, on the other hand, no dull, heavily documented compendium of minutiae in the apparent tradition of Canada's only other type of substantial library history, the doctoral dissertation. *As We Remember It* begins with the initial and excellent premise that the living history of much of our library development lies largely untapped within the memories of our retired librarians; and, under the able direction of Professors Gilroy and Rothstein, the attractively formatted, paper-backed volume proceeds in a series of interviews to strip-mine this precious lode.

The technique is not an unhappy one, for, once the reader acclimatizes himself to the vernacular repetition of "quite" and "well" and "you see"—a repetition which might well pass unnoticed in the dappled flow of conversation but which can jar when cast into the more lasting mould of print—the nuances of informal discussion come through remarkably well. This reviewer knew none of the interviewees personally, yet, helped by the photograph of each included in the volume, he began to form a picture of the protagonists. Dr. Helen Stewart, the dynamic, precise intellectual, with enormous personal charm and drive; Margaret Clay, perhaps more legalistic and traditional as a librarian, but also with the drive and personal dedication which must have been a *sine qua non* of those early days in the development of Canadian libraries; Charles Morison, the only man in the quartet, much more "virile" and extroverted than the historical stereotype of the male librarian would have us believe and not narrowly and exclusively a "librarian" at all; and the chatty, opinionated, wholly likeable Mrs. Muriel Ffoulkes. Such individualists are the

raw data of history; and, if at times their reminiscences provide clues rather than answers, the quality of their responses to perhaps not always inspired leads is an overall strength rather than a weakness in this type of "history."

Until very recently the number of substantial Canadian library histories could be counted on the fingers of one hand excluding the thumb, and the valid synthesis could be counted on the thumb. Indeed, even that synthesis, Antonio Drolet's *Les Bibliothèques Canadiennes, 1604–1960* (Montreal: Cercle du Livre de France, 1965) has been published only in French and is, perhaps for that reason, little known outside of Quebec. Moreover, Drolet's pioneer venture, courageous though it was, suffered severely from the lack of specific histories upon which to draw; and in this respect served merely to underscore the sad state of Canadian historiography. *As We Remember It* forms, therefore, an important addition to the source materials of library history, and one may now hope that Dr. Rothstein, recently freed from overriding administrative demands, will find the time and the incentive to produce a scholarly interpretation which would add perspective to the data, preserved with such foresight in these engaging memoirs.

"Try to remember, and if you remember, follow, follow, follow. . . ."—*J. P. Wilkinson, Professor, School of Library Science, University of Toronto*

Andriot, John L., ed. ***Guide to U.S. Government Serials & Periodicals.*** McLean, Virginia, Documents Index, 1971. 4 volumes in 3. Paper. $60.00. LC No. 75-7027.

"As a general rule, the public documents have been a despised class of books." The statement is Melvil Dewey's, spoken in 1877. Later he added, "A few United States documents are regarded as valuable. Specialists have learned that they contain much which is of the utmost importance to them, and which they can obtain nowhere else." Today not only specialists but anybody dealing in the commodity called information, values the content of government publications. As far as their unstandardized, whimsical, erratic, multifarious and unpredictable form is concerned they are, if not despised, at least tacitly frowned upon by most users and librarians alike. Only one aspect of Dewey's statement lost its validity. Today few government publications would be identified as books. Compounding the problems of their handling, a frightfully high percentage of them is issued in serial form.

Andriot's *Guide* is a courageous and quite successful effort to lighten two kinds of headache of the library world: government documents and serials. It must be made clear at the outset that the *Guide* is a directory and not an index. It provides bibliographic control of federally published serials and periodicals by several listings: (a) An alphabetic list of U.S. government agencies, commissions, and committees, with a brief history of each, (b) a classified list of Superintendent of Documents numbers with the names of agencies they represent, (c) classified list of current agencies (in existence on January 1, 1971) with annotated entries of their serial publications, (d) classified list of abolished agencies with their annotated publications and discontinued SuDocs numbers, (e) agency and title indexes. The *Guide* is in its seventh edition. Since its first publication in 1962, numerous, substantial changes attest to the responsiveness of its editor to specific information problems connected with government serials. What are some of these problems, and to what extent are they helped by the *Guide*?

1) Federal government agencies, with their frequent reorganizational changes present a tangled pattern. The maze is carried over into the classification scheme of federal publications, which mirrors the agencies' organizational structure. The *Guide* lists and briefly describes 2,216 agencies in the authority file of volume 1. Especially useful are lists of House and Senate committees and special presidential commissions. Unfortunately, the lack of a subject approach limits the value of this section. (The *Government Organization Manual* provides comparable directory information in conjunction with a subject index.) [For instance, somebody interested in agencies with an environmental concern will find only three listings. The "Agency index" in volume 4 will lead him to an additional seven, which still do not

provide the full picture of federal environmental involvement.]

2) Most of the standard periodical selection tools offer either very inadequate bibliographic control of government periodicals or none. (*Ulrich's* includes more government periodicals in recent editions, but it is still highly selective and unannotated.) Also the lists designed specifically for the selection of government periodicals (the February issue of the *Monthly Catalog* or *Price List* No. 36) are more limited in scope and bibliographic detail than Andriot's *Guide*. Research libraries in need of a comprehensive bibliographic apparatus will want to investigate the new *Checklist of United States Public Documents, 1789–1970* (Index four lists series) and compare it with Andriot's *Guide*.

3) A well-known problem is the identification of non-GPO serials including elusive bulletins, circulars, newsletters, releases, and looseleaf services put out by minor bureaus and field agencies. The *Guide* includes most of these fugitive items not readily identified by any other tool.

4) Sub-series of government serials have always appalled and frustrated users. Citations of such sub-series are furnished and annotated. Examples of series thus analyzed include the *Catalog of Copyright Entries, Current Fishery Statistics, Water Supply Papers* and, what will please any information seeker who ever tackled the *Serial Set*, even House and Senate documents.

5) After a government periodical had been bibliographically identified, information about its availability, frequency, and price is as vital as the basic question about its existence. The *Guide* provides the following details for each entry: Availability (same symbols used as in the *Monthly Catalog*), beginning date, frequency, LC card number, SuDocs number, and depository item number. It is regrettable that information provided by earlier editions is no longer included: LC class number, decimal class number, and price.

6) With the federal government becoming more and more involved in affairs of institutional and private life, access to information on current federal laws, regulations, standards, statistics, raw and repackaged data is becoming more crucial to wider strata of population than ever. There should be access to this information by topics in disciplinary as well as interdisciplinary areas. Since the *Guide* has no subject index and the title index is not a permuted one, the user has to resort to his familiarity with agencies and their concern with various areas of human endeavor when using the Agency index as a poor substitute for the subject approach.

[There are some inconsistencies and errors in the bibliographic listings and indexes. In the Agency index (v.4, p.1040), under *Council* we find *Environmental Quality*. On p.1043 we find *Environmental Quality Council*. Both entries carry the same SuDocs number. Actually the entries should clearly distinguish between two different agencies: the *Council on Environmental Quality* (established in 1970) and the *Environmental Quality Council* (established in 1969, renamed and later terminated in 1970)].

In conclusion, the improvements in this new edition of the *Guide* outweigh the flaws and shortcomings. A further improvement could be made by including, in case of government periodicals, the indexing and abstracting services where these periodicals are included. This device would be invaluable for both selection and reference purposes. In the meantime, the *Guide* is recommended for use in medium and larger libraries of all types. If there is still a librarian to whom public documents represent "a despised class of books," he should find them less despising because of this expedient key.—*Marta L. Dosa, School of Library Science, Syracuse University*

Spyers-Duran, Peter, and Gore, Daniel, eds. ***Advances in Understanding Approval and Gathering Plans in Academic Libraries.*** International Seminar on Approval and Gathering Plans in Large and Medium Size Academic Libraries, 2d, Western Michigan University, 1969. Kalamazoo: Western Michigan University, 1970. 220p.

When approval plans first appeared on the library scene in the early 1960s, only libraries with sizeable book budgets could consider having an English-language approval plan. The questions facing the libraries using and contemplating approval

plans were whether such procurement plans are cost effective, whether the quality of collection development is impaired or improved by these plans, how should an approval plan be handled and managed by the library, would the faculty accept the plan, what are the objections to having an approval plan, and how could a library with an automated acquisitions program incorporate the approval plan into its automated program?

Advances in Understanding Approval and Gathering Plans in Academic Libraries is a collection of papers presented at the Second International Seminar on Approval Plans in Large and Medium-sized Libraries, which was held at Western Michigan University on October 31, 1969. The seminar took place in a year when book budgets were sizeable and when federal support was great. It was a time when many medium-sized libraries were presented with huge amounts of money and were faced with the problem of how to spend it. In some instances the approval plan was not viewed as a valuable procurement method but as a hole in which to dump a huge sum of money. The papers reflect the age of affluence. It is assumed that the great amount of money being poured into approval plans is justifiable.

Papers relating the experiences of seven libraries concerning approval plans make up one third of the book: the role of the faculty in book selection (a problem which is relatively independent of the method of book procurement), the mechanics and rationale of ordering additional copies of titles received on approval, and the need for a system of earmarking titles for special collections and binding are discussed. Other papers address an unsuccessful attempt at making an approval plan work, faculty appraisal of approval plans, the satisfaction of branch library needs, and the problems of incorporating the approval plan into an existing automated acquisitions program.

The remainder of the book describes the services of a number of dealers offering approval plans. Several types of plans are represented, although changes in the services described have since taken place. Richard Abel & Co., which was then manually operating its program, now employs a computer for profiling and supplying according to the customer's requirements, and Bro-Dart, which then employed a computer, is now manually operated and has limited its approval coverage to the sciences, medicine, business, and economics. Baker & Taylor, then a newcomer as an approval dealer, has developed its U.S. English-language approval plan. In spite of such changes, the services presented provide an overview of the different types of approval plans that were and are available to libraries.

Just as budgets have changed, so has the ability of approval dealers to supply titles against a narrower, more specific profile. Dealers have learned from their experiences and have developed subject descriptors and other limiting parameters, so that a library wishing to receive only certain types of books in given subject categories may do so. This type of information is not included in the proceedings, nor is the discussion of how or whether libraries with limited book budgets should go on a limited approval plan for "core" titles. The library market is dynamic and although its complexion has changed since the seminar, these proceedings play an important role in relating the development of approval plans in academic libraries. Daniel Gore's critical essay, "Understanding Approval and Gathering Plans," is excellent and should be required reading for librarians and library school students.—*Harriet K. Rebuldela, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado*

State Library Policy; Its Legislative and Environmental Contexts. Douglas St. Angelo, Annie Mary Hartsfield, Harold Goldstein. Chicago: American Library Association, 1971. 118p.

Knowing that the research upon which this slim volume is based was supported by a substantial federal grant one is tempted to ask in the words of a popular song, "Is that all there is?" Upon close examination, however, it appears that this study, which utilizes the techniques of policy output analysis to examine the significant factors in state library development is very substantial.

For this reviewer the most significant conclusions were:

1. Good state library programs are an act of free will.

2. Good library programs are the result of leadership.

Granted that these conclusions are valid, anyone who has observed the state library scene for the last decade or so must raise an inevitable question. With all of the rhetoric about the central role of the state library and its leadership functions, why haven't more good state library programs developed? Are we lacking in will or leadership or both?

In addition to the substantial questions which it answers and raises, the study includes a number of notable features. The chapter on "Agencies and the Policy Process" is an excellent manual on profitable political activity. Also, Alex Ladenson's essay included in the appendix on "The Role of State Government in the Establishment, Promotion and Support of Public Libraries" is a very useful survey.

A valuable study and a refreshing departure from the usual efforts in this field which are over-larded with useless statistics and short on meaningful conclusions. —*F. William Summers, Graduate Library School, University of South Carolina*

John B. Corbin. ***A Technical Services Manual for Small Libraries.*** Metuchen, N.J.: Scarecrow Press, 1971. 206p.

In *A Technical Services Manual for Small Libraries* by John B. Corbin, Scarecrow Press, 1971, Corbin attempts to describe technical service routines and practices in "small- to medium-sized libraries (college, school, public, or special)" for the benefit of inexperienced librarians assigned the task of organizing and managing a technical service operation. Since "small" is nowhere defined, and since college, public, school, and special libraries vary radically in function, size, and populations served, the book manages to fall neatly between several stools. Corbin seems most comfortable in describing techniques appropriate to public libraries, and is aware of procedures useful to college libraries of modest aims; the book is of little use to special or school libraries. It might more appropriately have been titled *Helpful Hints for Planning and Managing Technical Service Operations in Small Public or College Libraries.*

Corbin devotes time to describing the nature of work in acquisition and cataloging, and requirements for space, equipment, and desirable staff traits for technical service librarians. Curiously, although acquisitions and cataloging functions, and book preparation procedures are examined in some detail, no attempt is made to describe bindery or prebindery procedures.

After chapters on Organization, Selection, Acquisitions, Classification and Cataloging, Preparation of Catalog and Shelf List Cards, and Final Preparation of Materials, the last chapter concerns itself with Special Problems in Technical Services Work. These problems are work simplification, precataloging and reclassifying, centralized processing, preprocessing, and automation and mechanization.

The selected bibliography of basic sources is one of the more useful features of the book. However, whether Haines' *Living With Books* has practical applications today is debatable; *The National Union Catalog* is most likely to be required in affluent college libraries; Robert Casey's *Punched Cards*—$20.00 for *one* chapter—seems a dubious choice, and Tauber's *Technical Services in Libraries* is seriously out of date. The most remarkable omission is Dougherty and Heinritz's *Scientific Management of Library Operations,* a fundamental text for organizing routines in libraries.

Corbin describes established techniques, well known to experienced librarians and, for the most part, already described elsewhere in the literature. However, the techniques discussed are clearly and carefully described. The book could thus be of some help to neophytes in the profession if the texts in Corbin's bibliography are not at hand.

Physically, this is one of the characteristically unattractive but sturdy books published by Scarecrow Press, photo-reduced from an accurately typed manuscript. (Oh, yes, on page 117, *Who's Afraid of Virginia Woolf?* is by Edward, not Albert Albee.)

Corbin's book is not a significant addition to the literature of library management. It is recommended only for those libraries attempting to collect all books on librarianship.—*David E. Pownall, Hofstra University*

Jackson, Miles M., Jr., ed. ***Comparative and International Librarianship: Essays on Themes and Problems.*** Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Corporation [c1970]. 307p. $13.50. Library of Congress Catalog Card No. 77-98710. SBN: 8371-3327-0.

To the relatively small shelf of books on comparative librarianship one is glad to welcome another—and useful—addition. This volume, consisting of twelve essays edited by Miles M. Jackson, Jr., aims at giving us "a composite view of the problems, progress, and prospects for librarianship" (p. vii), and it does offer some interesting studies of certain aspects of the profession. Although the editor recognizes the difficulty of giving comprehensive treatment to the subject, he credits the compilation with a "worldwide basis," which, in the strict sense, it lacks. According to this reviewer's calculation (rechecked against the country entries in the index), none of the twelve studies deals with such important areas of the world as India, Southeast Asia, and the Far East; for Europe there is no mention of Italy (or of Sweden either); and all articles on the Western Hemisphere omit the British Caribbean. Granted the impossibility of full geographic coverage, it would have been interesting to see additional articles providing some discussion of these areas; perhaps the editor planned for their inclusion, and they failed to materialize.

The opening article is Louis Shores' essay "Comparative Librarianship: A Theoretical Approach," which presents some thoughtful reflections based on many years of experience. In it he offers the thesis that "librarianship as a profession can best improve itself by comparative study" (p.4), but, perhaps more importantly, he pleads for qualitative as well as quantitative comparisons. The remaining eleven studies are distributed into four groups, corresponding to the traditional type-of-library division: public (3), academic (3), national (3), and special (2) (actually public and school libraries are grouped together in a section entitled "Public Libraries and Media Centers," and one of the three articles is devoted to the latter). Although the authors hail from the Anglo-American world (eight from the U.S. and four from the British Commonwealth), all have had wide experience with the areas on which they write, even though the lack of biographical information in the book prevents this from being clear.

As far as range in geographic coverage goes, the national library fares by far the best, with Latin America, the U.S.S.R., and Africa each treated in a separate article. There is one essay (on classification and information retrieval) devoted to Europe and one (on special libraries and information centers) to Southwest Asia; three on the U.S. and one each on Canada, Australia, and West Africa compose the remaining six. Indeed the most homogeneous section consists of the three articles on national libraries and bibliography (the one on Latin America excludes the latter topic). For this reason the reader regrets the lack of additional essays about similar institutions in Europe and Asia, especially since two basic sources, the *Library Trends* issue devoted to national libraries and *National Libraries: Their Problems and Prospects* (the publication resulting from UNESCO-sponsored symposium), appeared in 1955 and 1960 respectively.

While space limitations preclude the analysis here of individual articles, the three dealing with the American scene ("Public Library Services in the Inner City," by Milton Byam; "School Libraries and Librarianship," by Carolyn Whitenack; and "Automation in the Academic Library in the United States," by Clayton Shepherd) —interesting essays in themselves—are, perhaps understandably, the least international in their outlook; they make little or no reference to comparable situations overseas.

Most articles are descriptive rather than evaluative or critical in tone; style naturally varies from author to author, but on the whole is adequate, although several writers exhibit a tendency to throw in asides which, while often interesting, are not particularly germane to the topic on which they are writing. All studies have notes at the end, and most a bibliography as well. Although the book contains no illustrations, several essays present helpful statistical tables. In this connection one wonders why the three sets of figures drawn from *The World of Learning* and entitled "Books in

the National Libraries of the U.S.S.R., Latin America, Africa" (p.291–93) appear as an Appendix; they would obviously be of greater utility placed with the respective articles.

The index (p.295–307) appears to be more than adequate as far as entries under countries and names of specific institutions go, although there are a few problems—e.g., entries under both Egypt and United Arab Republic, but not references to the same pages. The policy on entry for cities seems somewhat inconsistent, but the greatest drawback, at least in this reader's view, lies in the topical entries. The heading for national libraries does not even record the pages for two of the three articles in the volume (granted that they also deal with bibliographies), nor does the cross reference "Special libraries. . . . *See also* Library and libraries; National libraries; University libraries" seem helpful. Moreover in a volume on librarianship one wonders what purpose the phrase "Library and libraries" serves. Random check of entries failed to disclose any blind references.

The volume is well printed; this reviewer noted very few typographical errors, even in citations to foreign language publications. There were, however, a few minor inconsistencies of bibliographical style, probably due to slips in making entries submitted by twelve authors conform to house style.

We are indebted to the compiler and publisher for making available a group of interesting essays—all of them worth reading. And perhaps that is the best way to judge such a volume, for the difficulties in securing overall unity and comprehensiveness are almost insurmountable.—*William Vernon Jackson, George Peabody College for Teachers and Vanderbilt University*

OTHER BOOKS OF INTEREST TO ACADEMIC LIBRARIANS

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Arboleda-Sepulveda, and Galrao, Maria José. *Directorio De Siglas En Ciencias Agricolas.* Turrialba, Costa Rica: IICA-CIDIA, 1971. 189p. $3.00.

Baird, Violet M., ed. *Texas Medical History in the Library of the University of Texas Southwestern Medical School.* Dallas, TX.: University of Texas Southwestern Medical School, 1972. 91p. $10.00 (76-187337).

Basler, Roy P., comp. *Lincoln's Gettysburg Address in Translation.* Washington, D.C.: Library of Congress, 1972. 32p. $1.25. (78-39311). (ISBN 0-8444-0018-1).

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Dick, Aliki Lafkidou. *A Student's Guide to British Literature.* Littleton, Col.: Libraries Unlimited, Inc., 1972. 285p. $9.50. (77-189255). (ISBN 0-87287-044-8).

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Phase I Final Report on Study of Academic Library Consortia. By Diana D. DeLanoy and Carlos A. Cuadra. Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. October 1971. 27p. (ED 057 825, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

Phase I involves two questionnaire surveys aimed at identifying all academic library consortia in higher education and, within this universe, providing a list of participating libraries and services. The major product of this phase is a "Directory of Academic Library Consortia." The descriptions of the individual tasks outlined in this Phase I report are: (1) initial planning, (2) developing the survey plan, (3) developing the survey instruments, (4) making other survey preparations, (5) mailing of questionnaire 1, (6) follow-up of questionnaire 1, (7) mailing of questionnaire 2, (8) follow-up of questionnaire 2, (9) inspection and preparation for analysis, (10) analysis, (11) confirming directory content and form and (12) preparation of directory.

Final Report on Phase II; Study of Academic Library Consortia. By Carlos A. Cuadra, and others. Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. November 15, 1971. 53p. (ED 057 826, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

Phase II involves a case-study analysis of fifteen selected consortia to help determine the usefulness and effectiveness of academic library consortia. The two major products resulting from the project are the "Directory of Academic Library Consortia" and the "Guidelines for the Development of Academic Library Consortia." This Phase II report presents the summary for both the Phase I and Phase II activities and findings, the survey findings, and the dissemination of the findings.

A Theory of Indexing: Indexing Theory as a Model for Information Storage and Retrieval. By Bertrand Clovis Landry. National Science Foundation, Washington, D.C. Office of Science Information Service. December 1971. 282p. (ED 057 843, MF—$0.65 HC—$9.87)

Present day shortcomings in information retrieval are the results of a failure to properly contend with the problem of data representation. The index provides the necessary linkage between a multiplicity of sources and a single receiver. Whether considering the source/document-space interface or the query/index interface, the elements of the underlying communication phenomena are the same: sets of documents, sets of attributes, and sets of relations expressing a connection between documents and attributes. The essential operation of the indexing system is the creation of a representation of the document space. The analysis—document transformations and the final index-query transformations are shown to be, respectively, a prerequisite to, and function of, the document space representation. The operating characteristics of the indexing system are modeled by means of the index space. From a dif-

ferent point of view, the concept of error, organization, information and search are introduced through a consideration of the indexing process as a thermodynamic system. Thus, indexing is viewed as an order-increasing operation that identifies common data elements and relations between data elements present in the input document stream.

Copyright Program Information. National Center for Education Communication (DHEW/OE), Washington, D.C. 1971. 14p. (ED 057 845, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

The purpose of this publication is to provide information about the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) Copyright Program. It is the July 1971 revision of the "Copyright Program Information" April 1971 edition (ED 051 855). It is a supplement to the "Copyright Guidelines" published in the Federal Register on May 9, 1970 (ED 051 854) and effective June 8, 1970. The information is provided primarily for those institutions and organizations which are developing educational materials under USOE contracts and project grants and which desire to obtain commercial dissemination, under copyright, for those materials.

Library Job Descriptions; Prepared by the Participants in the HEW Funded Institute "Utilization of Library Manpower," November 29—December 10, 1971. Graduate School of Librarianship, University of Denver. Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. 1971. 32p. (ED 057 827, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

The twenty-four job descriptions in this report represent a consensus of all the participants. The participants feel that the full capabilities of the incumbent of a job are not utilized. The job descriptions illustrate the increased standards of performance of professional categories and provide for the assignment of nonprofessional duties to other job classifications. Descriptions are provided for the following occupational titles: (1) community aide (four descriptions), (2) library technical assistant (three descriptions), (3) library associate (three descriptions), (4) cataloging assistant, (5) librarian—fifth year (seven descriptions), (6) personnel and budget officer, (7) media librarian or media specialist, (8) librarian—sixth year librarian/specialist, (9) sixth year—assistant director of libraries, (10) director of libraries (senior librarian—large public library), and (11) library specialist—Chicano studies librarian.

Library Environmental Design: Physical Facilities and Equipment. By Edward G. Evans and others. Department of the Army, Washington, D.C. Dec. 31, 1971. 264p. (ED 058 906, MF—$0.65 HC—$9.87)

This state of the art report summarizes current practice and accepted standards in library physical facility design. It is intended to serve as an interim planning guide for Army technical libraries until the completion of the Guided Inquiry System in the second phase of this study. Recommendations made in the report are based on a thorough review of the literature on library planning and design, an analysis of the present Army procedures for obtaining library facilities, interviews with librarians, building consultants and architects, and site visits to a number of different types of military and non-military libraries. The report concludes that a generic base exists from which to plan all libraries and makes specific recommendations to improve the procedures for providing Army technical libraries. Recommendations include (1) using a planning team approach throughout the building project; (2) using a written, fully documented building program; (3) the team explore all options for a new facility; (4) the team should use a proximity chart to analyze library activity relationships until the Guided Inquiry System is developed; (5) the team should use the interim generic evaluation method described in this report in the evaluation process until the method is fully developed.

The Williams & Wilkins Company v. the United States; Report of Commissioner to the Court. Court of Claims, Washington, D.C. Feb. 16, 1972. 63p. (ED 058 921, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

In this copyright infringment suit, the plaintiff (Williams & Wilkins Company)

alleges that the defendant (Department of Health, Education and Welfare) through its agencies, the National Institutes of Health (NIH) and the National Library of Medicine (NLM) has infringed plaintiff's copyrights in medical journals by making unauthorized photocopies of articles from such journals. The Commissioner to the Court holds that the defendant had infringed the plaintiff's copyrights and that the plaintiff is entitled to recover "reasonable and entire compensation." For convenience and orderly discussion of the many complex problems raised by this case, the opinion is divided into three parts. Part I is a synopsis of the material facts, most of which are not in dispute. Detailed facts are set out in the findings of fact. Part II deals with the copyright law as it applies to resolution of the case. Part III deals with some ancillary matters.

Automation and the Federal Library Community. By Barbara Evans Markuson and others. Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. July 1971. 241p. (ED 058 917, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

The third phase of a four-phase program developed by the Federal Library Committee Task Force on Library Automation in conjunction with its overall objective of reviewing and reporting upon the status of automation in Federal libraries is reported. The first phase of the overall program appraised the current activities in library automation and identified major trends. The second phase involved a series of studies reporting on the history and development of selected Federal library automation projects. The third phase, reported here, had three goals: (1) study and define library operations susceptible to automation; (2) survey and describe in meaningful terms, the current techniques of automation which are potentially useful in library application; and (3) establish criteria for making determinations as to feasibility, functions to be automated, types of hardware and software to be used, internal and external services, and extent of involvement with other systems. The three major tasks of this phase were: (1) a survey of the Federal library community; (2) preparation of a handbook to guide Federal librarians in automation feasibility and planning; and (3) preparation of a report summarizing the survey results, and automation findings, and presenting recommendations for phase four.

An Evaluation of the Colorado Statewide Reference Network. By Mary Sypert. Colorado State Library, Denver. April 1971. 259p. (ED 058 888, MF—$0.65 HC—$9.87)

Lack of adequate administration is concluded to be the main cause of Network inefficiency and ineffectiveness. Some of the recommendations for improvement of Network administration are: (1) The Colorado State Library (CSL) should remain the central agency for administration of the Statewide Reference Network (SRN). CSL should accept responsibility for the planning and design of the Network; it should delegate role responsibilities and specialties; and it should be responsible for implementing operations and continuous evaluation; (2) CSL should identify a position within the organizational structure at the appropriate level for an administrator of the SRN; (3) A governing committee other than the Colorado Council on Library Development should be established to work closely with the administrator of SRN in the guidance and direction of the Network's development; and (4) Objectives of the SRN should be established.

Wayne State University Libraries Operations, a Description of Staff Employment. By Vern M. Pings and Lothar Spang. Wayne State University, Detroit, Mich. December 1971. 61p. (ED 058 887, MF—$0.65 HC—$3.29)

The study has produced a description of the Library System that can be stated in quantitative statements with an assurance of accuracy not possible previously. The data provide a means of reformulating value statements into factual statements directly or provide a base line from which to determine what additional data are needed to make factual statements which can be tested empirically. Planning for improvement can be undertaken because the data demonstrates, although in a very sim-

plified manner, the interrelatedness of library functions. The data reported are a description of the Library System as of the Fall of 1971; as changes are instituted, these data may serve as a check in the future as to the actual results in staff deployment and cost allocations. The study will enable the library staff to assess the relevancy or the inadequacy of services at present and as changes occur.

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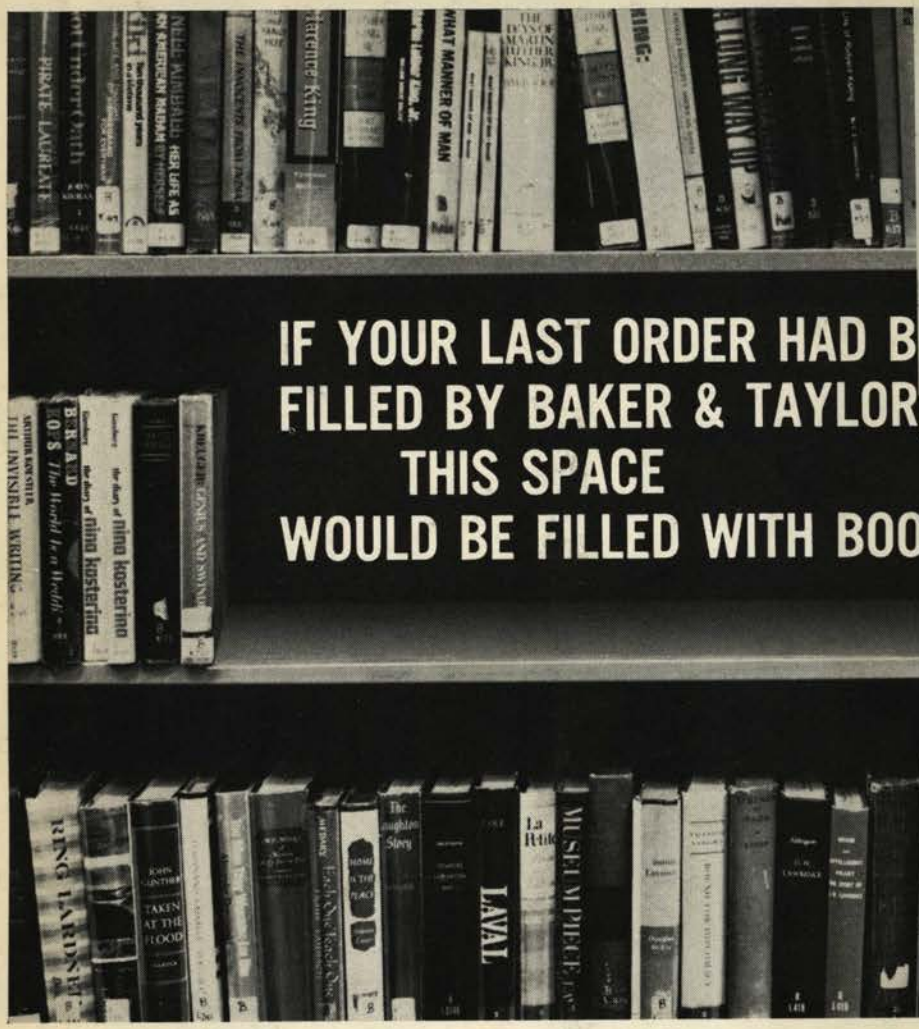

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